

CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

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CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

Journal of the
INTERNATIONAL KINDERGARTEN UNION
 FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF
 NURSERY-KINDERGARTEN-PRIMARY EDUCATION



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CHILDHOOD EDUCATION, official organ of the *International Kinder-
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 vances nursery-kindergarten-primary education by presenting:

The vital problems in the field through professional and practi-
 cal articles

Conditions in foreign countries and in our outlying possessions
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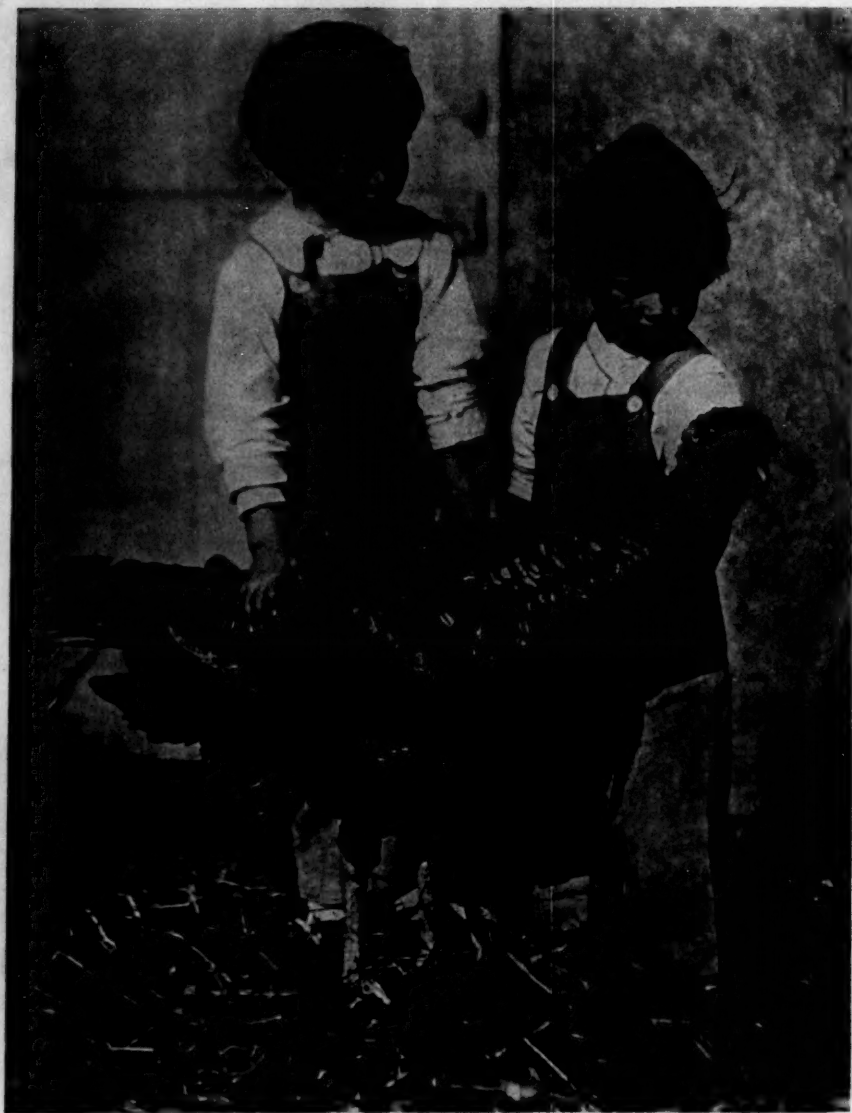
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An index to current periodical literature

Reviews of books for teachers and children

All who are interested in childhood education from its special class-
 room problems to its national and international aspects are interested in
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ANTICIPATING THANKSGIVING

The Importance of Studying Behavior

NO ASPECT of education is more important to educators than behavior problems. One mal-adjusted child in a group will cause more difficulty than can be compensated for by the "ninety and nine" with whose behavior little fault can be found. The mal-adjustment may range all the way from some serious problem requiring mental hygiene or some speech defect that makes the child timid or openly defiant to social attitudes which result in a mild but steady resistance to the reception of the educative experiences which the school and the teacher have to offer.

This number of *CHILDHOOD EDUCATION* presents some of the phases of behavior problems from two aspects, (1) the way in which such problems may develop and (2) some of the methods for setting up good social behavior which by its presence prevents undesirable habits and activities.

Dr. Kilpatrick presents a comprehensive analysis of behavior problems, giving a sane slant on their interpretation and treatment. Miss Adams shows some of the uses which a classroom teacher may make of group enterprises in developing desirable social behavior. Dr. Gesell warns against ignoring the fact of immaturity in the child, pointing to age as a vital factor in behavior problems. The Drs. Jones describe a laboratory experiment of the emotional life of young children, contrasting the results with those of experiments with older children and adults. Dr. Blatz presents discipline and corporal punishment in interesting relationships.

Since authorities are, for the most part, in agreement that the basis both for behavior problems and for desirable social behavior is laid in the first few years of a child's life, the subject of this number will be of particular interest to nursery, kindergarten, and primary teachers.

—ADA HART ARLITT.

The Toys

My little son, who looked with thoughtful eyes
And moved and spoke in quiet grown-up wise
Having my law the seventh time disobeyed.
I struck him, and dismissed
With hard words, and unkissed,—
His mother, who was patient, being dead.
Then fearing lest his grief should hinder sleep,
I visited his bed,
But found him slumbering deep,
With darkened eyelids, and their lashes yet
From his late sobbing wet.
And I, with moan,
Kissing away his tears, left others of my own;
For on a table drawn beside his head,
He had put, within his reach,
A box of counters and a red-veined stone,
A piece of glass abraded by the beach,
And six or seven shells,
And two French copper coins ranged there with careful art,
To comfort his sad heart.
So when that night I prayed
To God, I wept, and said:—
Ah, when at last we lie with tranced breath,
Not vexing thee in death,
And thou remembrest of what toys
We made our joys,
How weakly understood
Thy great commanded good
Then, fatherly not less
Than I whom thou hast molded from the clay,
Thou'lt leave thy wrath, and say,
I will be sorry for their childishness.

—*Coventry Patmore.*

Behavior Problems¹

WILLIAM H. KILPATRICK

Columbia University

EVERYBODY knows that some children are "unaccountably bad." Such may be found in families the most conscientious and high-toned. In times past drastic measures have often been used in dealing with such children. More recently a change of attitude is apparent. New things are in the air. But some of these new things do not appeal. What are we to think?

In this paper specific behavior problems go unconsidered. For that a book would be needed. Instead an effort is made to see the general problem. First a glance at several ideas—some old, some new—which hinder us from going straight ahead in the matter. Then a short statement of what seems the best present position. In fairness it must be said that the matter is too great for so short an account.

First of all, while tradition performs needed services it nonetheless keeps alive some things that were better dead. Usually the outworn is so mingled with the vital that a clear cut view is hard to get.

Punishment is perhaps of all things brought from the past that one which most hinders us in dealing with behavior. Much of course is included in this one word "punishment." The worst aspect

probably is that of dealing with wrongdoing as such. Most of us seem to feel "instinctively" that wrongdoing should be punished. In times past practically all the conscientious of our ancestors so thought and so acted on all wrongdoing in reach. Law and its enforcement are based on it. Theology seemed to fasten the idea in the very essence of religion. Custom enthroned the practice in home and school.

In spite of all this we are now coming to see generally that the punishment of children is seldom if ever effective of only good results and doubtfully of the best results. It is true that pain accompaniments can at times be arranged to advantage with very young children. But it seems beyond question that no child should ever be punished merely because he has done wrong. Not that wrongdoing should be ignored (sometimes yes, sometimes no), but that whatever is done be done only after full consideration of all foreseeable consequences and then solely with reference to improving affairs for the future.

To believe much in punishment is so likely to shut the mind to the causes of the present bad condition that genuine search for real treatment will rarely take place. Considered remedial treatment is all but blocked. All in all, especially where the integration of personality is considered, punishment as such is seen to be so dangerous that fewer and fewer

¹ Reprints available at 10 cents a copy or 5 cents each in lots of 25 or more. Order from International Kindergarten Union, 1201 16th Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

thoughtful people are willing to use it in any careful treatment of a behavior case.

Another widespread hang-over, now happily decreasing in dealing with children, is the belief that people act in any case only through hope of reward or fear of punishment. In spite of the facts that our economic and legal systems seem based on this theory, it may still be asserted that to base life on it is to degrade life. With children and young people at any rate its use if granted at all seems best restricted to emergencies when all else fails us. And even here if it does not soon make itself unnecessary something is probably wrong.

Efficient effort at personal integration does not need the fear-reward basis. The human individuality is essentially active, setting up ends, pursuing these by the use of means personally devised, undergoing if need be hardship in order to attain the ends so set up. In the normal social process most of this is shared with others. In all this ideas and ideals play a real part (in spite of what some seem to say to the contrary). Motivation is properly internal. Rewards are inherent. Thus is the healthy self best built and personality integrated on a basis of self-direction which duly considers other personalities.

Contrariwise, to appeal continually to extrinsic rewards or fear naturally makes for the disintegration of personality. Mere external conformity is favored with all its dangers of deceit and a divided self. Such a system is the natural accompaniment of a non-democratic outlook on life that is more concerned with preserving conformity and securing external products than it is with building personality. It is a procedure which breeds behavior problems rather than cures them.

Quite in keeping with both the foregoing is the disposition on the part of parents and teachers—all too prevalent—to overmaster those under their care. While responsibility for children carries with it a certain control, all such control should aim at making itself progressively unnecessary. Our goal must be intelligent and considerate self-control on the part of our children and young people. The results of over-domination may be very evil, primarily either an impotent docility or an impudent assertiveness, secondarily often much worse disturbances. The sins of many parents are grievous here. Probably even with most parents children are seldom what they might have been with a more fortunate management.

In times past, when tradition largely opposed thinking, most parents acted as if they had the right and even the obligation to determine what their children should believe and so to fasten this in them as to leave it beyond recall. Indoctrination (in its bad sense) ruled in the realms of religion, politics, and social theory. Now when things are changing and thought is necessary to consider and sift tradition, we increasingly believe that such indoctrination is in effect to take advantage of the helplessness of the young to fasten in them our prejudices, and an increasing sensitivity disapproves it. In particular is this indoctrination dangerous for the adolescent who comes into active contact with opposed views (and who can avoid it?) Most serious mal-adjustments often result. The whole moral structure having been founded on an inflexible basis may for the time be overthrown entirely. Anyone properly placed in touch with growing adolescents, in high school and college, can testify to the misery and

damage done by such methods of teaching.

Respect for the personality of the growing child seems the only safe course, conscious efforts to avoid an undue dominance, on our part, conscious care that the child may grow as fast and as fully as he can into adequate self-control and self-direction. Otherwise serious maladjustments, within and without, are probable results.

Allied with all the foregoing is an old-fashioned separation of morals and religion from the rest of life. For many morals have been a matter of specific "don'ts" as religion has been conformity to specific doctrines and practices, much of all being tragically unadapted to present conditions. To insist on the observance of such has often brought the most serious personality problems and estrangements. The hurt here to life both by omission and commission seems incalculable. It is peculiarly sad also that the official guardians of these spiritual inheritances have too often most aggravated the evils.

All the foregoing are instances where hang-overs from the past still remain with us to thwart and hamper the utilization of the best that is known and thought in the management of the young. But not all such inadequacies and hindrances are from the past. The present also furnishes its supply, generally mistaken and excessive reactions from former mistakes and inadequacies.

Some of our "advanced" young people seem to be entertaining the idea that morality is and of right ought to be quite out of date. So narrow has the older morality seemed to these that they conclude that all morality is pure convention. Just as in this country we turn on the road to the right, while other equally intelligent

countries turn to the left, so these "advanced" ones judge that always it is convention and tradition rather than reason that has been allowed to decide. If reason then is silent, why obey?

For reply we may continue with the road. It is (so we may admit) mere convention and tradition that decide for the right here and for the left elsewhere; but not so with the need of some rule. It is no mere convention that in any one country there should be one uniform and understood way of turning. In the long run all profit by it. The social consequences determine the need of such a rule. And so must it be wherever the conduct of one person affects the life of others. Under such circumstances consequences become a matter of concern and as causing them the conduct becomes too a matter of public concern. These things cannot be denied. Nor can it be denied that a proper study of the past enables us within reason to foretell consequences. On these bases rests morality as the obligation resting on the individual to take consequences into account before acting.

In close alliance is the thought advanced by some that modern psychology has so enthroned mechanism as to take away personal responsibility for conduct and so in this way to cut the ground from beneath morality.

The answer to this is "No" and the supporting reason is not difficult to supply.

Let us grant all the mechanisms that any may wish and yield to them the entire function of conduct, only we require that ideas (under whatever name chosen) be allowed to have a real part to play in the process. If any deny this part to ideas, ask him why and whether he is himself thus following some idea he has and wishes us to have and follow. His

denial is thus dialectic and not actual, for ideas do in some measure guide and direct conduct and the denial but illustrates it.

If now ideas form an essential part in the causal series of conduct events, then we need to see that I being moved (as observation easily shows) by the approval and disapproval of others can form and accept the idea that I shall by such-and-such conduct win public approval and by failure to show this conduct shall win disapproval. Further we must see (and who will deny it?) that I can form an idea of what I proposed to effect (including changes in myself) and can and will within limits pursue this ideal and at least in some measure realize it in fact. Then taking together this count and the preceding it is clear that on the basis of mechanisms there is satisfactory basis for asserting within limits the fact of personal responsibility sufficient within like limits for one to hold himself responsible and for others to hold him responsible for things within his capacity at the time to control. Accountability rests thus adequately on the threefold basis of (I) control over events (within limits clearly true), (II) an actual place for ideas in the causal series of events, and (III) the ability of man to form such ideas.

That social life proceeds actually on this basis needs but to be carefully considered in order to be admitted as fact. The kind of moral responsibility we need is amply provided.

A further reaction which we must deny is the demand on the part of some, it may be for themselves, it may be for their children or pupils, that there be absolute and unrestricted self-expression. If the demand be for themselves, we deny it on grounds already covered. Morality is in

essence a denial of such self-expression as ignores others. Where the demand is in behalf of growing children it seems to spring either from the fear that "suppression" is too dangerous to be allowed or from a belief that self-hood is too complete or too sacred or too unique to admit of interference.

This extreme fear of "suppression" seems to result from a mis-applied true conception. It is quite true that any impulse to conduct on being suppressed may cause trouble, through resentment or the like, bringing disintegration and mal-adjustment. The danger here however is not from the interference or thwarting as such (this may from other considerations be quite necessary), the danger is of failure to integrate the experience. A child has the impulse to handle a live coal, the results thwart his impulse. The damage, however, is rather to his hand than to his personality. For he readily integrates the experience with his character (previous integrated experience). He easily accepts the idea and henceforth acts on it that it is he and not the coal which must yield if bare hand and coal happen to meet. It is thus not suppression as such which does the damage, it is the difficulty of integrating experiences characterized by suppression. Integration is here, as elsewhere, the test of success.

The doctrine that the self is so sacred or complete or unique as to require absolute self-expression seems to rest on a false assumption as to the nature of the self, namely that the self is originally given complete and unique (though possibly at birth only potentially so in the germ). Such a theory does not accord with the facts. At birth so far as we can tell the self is practically non-existent. What there is would of itself fit with and

allow an infinite number of infinitely different possible selves. The self that actually comes into being is constructed under social direction and largely of socially supplied content. If the process be guided in one way one self results, guided another way another quite different self results.

The sacredness of the self may well be admitted as a postulate of ethics, but this sacredness is not of the kind to hold the educator away from the child, rather the contrary. The wise educator must continually guide in order that the child may increasingly achieve the kind of self that properly demands non-interference, namely the kind that does increasingly think adequately in terms of the pertinent facts and independently of interfering prejudices whether his own or of others. The child's self is at all times too sacred to allow anything to interfere with growth toward this consummation; but this very sacredness would demand that he be not the sole judge as to what shall happen.

The problem then in the end is practical, not theoretical. Granted the kind of self demanded by ethics, how shall we so act as best to help in growth toward this ideal? Since growing is learning and learning is strictly personal, the child must himself practice all the directions in which he should grow including exercise in judging and choosing. Our part then is to help this kind of learning creature to grow toward the ideal as set out. Increasing self-direction, decreasing control by us, but all during childhood our part is positive to help forward the process.

A fourth tendency, modern as well as traditional, is to restrict the notion of learning largely if not entirely to habit formation. That this habit element is

present in all learning may well be admitted, but there is also a learning *how* to do a thing as well as a learning *to* do it (or *not to* do it). In some instances the learning *how* to do it is by much the largest element as in most creative work. In others the *how* plays so small a part as to seem (to some) to be absent. Probably (certainly, in my opinion) both elements are always in some degree present.

Now it makes a great difference to school procedure and to behavior problems how learning is conceived. If on a habit basis principally, then a fixed curriculum will prevail with set lessons and examinations or standardized tests to check both pupils and teachers. Life is admittedly not present in such a school, the pupils are preparing to live later. Behavior problems are the natural fruitage. This was the settled state for most children in the good old days. Not that pathological mal-adjustments necessarily abounded, but barely smothered resentments, "getting even," school boy tricks, characterized pupils, as punishment characterized the discipline.

In the degree, however, that due place is provided for individual initiative and creative expression the attitude changes. In a public school in Ceylon changing from the old basis to the new, whippings fell off, as reported to me by the inspector, from one hundred a week to practically none, so great a change of attitude was effected.

With this rather lengthy consideration of the inadequate ideas that beset us in this field, we are ready now to ask as to the present status. What is the present answer as to what is needed? The answer I give is of course my own. Others will answer differently.

No discussion of the problem can be

deemed adequate that does not take conscious account of the philosophy of life assumed. Some philosophies tend to create mal-adjustments. A proper philosophy must build itself in the light of this fact.

The philosophy herein assumed has perhaps already made itself sufficiently evident. At least this much has been indicated, it must work for self-directing characters, integrated within and without, such as will more and more adequately *see* what is implied for life in any given situation, *can* more and more effectively carry out what is thus seen to be needed, *will* more and more surely execute what has been judged proper. Such a character, we may say, more and more achieves freedom.

The basis for such character building is one of natural continuity with the ordinary science, particularly founding itself on biology. In this for present purposes possibly the most valuable single conception will be that of organism. We may contrast organism with inorganic matter especially in two regards. First, organism tends actively to preserve its being and character as against aggression. Inorganic matter on the other hand enters freely into compounds in a way to change radically the character of its own action, as for instance free hydrogen and as a constituent in water. This tendency of organism to preserve the character of itself gives us the fact of behavior which rises to its highest known status in the conduct of man.

The second characteristic of organism is that it includes within itself its past history and in some measure behaves differently on that account. It is not so with inorganic matter, gold for example does not show at any time how many times it has been previously

melted and molded, no trace of such past history abiding. This second characteristic gives us the capital fact of learning. For us here conduct and learning are the two main factors in life.

The action of organism so understood yields a particularly useful analysis.

1. Suppose some attack on the organism (from within or from without).
2. An upset of equilibrium or "complacency" (to use Dr. Raup's term) results.
3. There follows organic stress or urge to regain equilibrium or complacency.
4. This means organic strivings along lines previously organized in and (so we say) for such restoring or regaining of equilibrium. On the level of man these strivings may take the form
 - a. Setting up consciously an end which is taken to define equilibrium restored
 - b. Choosing of means or steps likely to attain this end
5. Attainment of equilibrium means "satisfaction." Failure to attain equilibrium means continued disturbance.
6. *Successful* steps are (in keeping with the second characteristic) fixed in the organism as *more likely* to be used on the next occasion of a similar upset.
Unsuccessful steps are similarly *less likely* to be used next time (herein we have the well known law of effect).

The analysis points thus the normal road to action and learning. It also indicates the locus of behavior problems. *Organic disturbances not adequately restored remain as continuing disturbances,* and may take seemingly strange paths in the continued efforts at restoration. Where repetition is super-added the disturbed condition may become chronic to complicate disturbances that otherwise might be successfully reduced. Herein we see more fully the danger from "suppression" for example, and how the term integration well describes the process of successful restoration of equilib-

rium (though probably at a different level or state from the original.)

A special kind of disturbances are those caused by the ill working of the glands of internal secretion. Too much or too little secretion may cause a very disturbing kind of upset. If the secretion be chronically wrong, the resulting disturbance may become chronic with serious consequences to behavior.

A "behavior problem" is thus some failure to restore equilibrium. Remedial steps must then begin where the trouble began. If that be understood, the cause may be attacked directly. The term integration of personality as suggested above may conveniently serve to call attention to the need always for securing equilibrium and for organizing in each such case the steps and the results along with the total existing character into one consistent whole. In this sense the integration of personality both within and without, becomes a very useful aim in the educative process.

From both the foregoing it follows that we need a psychology correlatively able to fit the required philosophy and adequate to express the biological conception of equilibrium or complacency just developed.

Unfortunately our psychology with the desire of being "scientific" has at times so restricted its treatment as to fail to meet the demands of life and of education. Too often it has seemed to restrict learning (and so apparently the work of the school) to mere habit formation. It has thus slighted ideas and the part they play in life and has failed to give due importance to purposes and creative thinking. That these are more difficult to treat than habits may be admitted, but the impression ought not to be allowed to spread that ideals and purposes and the more human side of

life are somehow taboo for the careful thinker.

Many of our most troublesome behavior problems arise because the school following an inadequate psychology has not found adequate room for child purposes and endeavor. Wherever creative work, whether in literature or in art or in grosser constructive work, is deliberately sacrificed to a supposed greater control over technique, behavior problems are more likely to arise. Life will not be cheated. Personality cannot, with impunity, be disregarded.

Problems of mal-adjustment are receiving more and more of consideration. Hitherto psychiatrists and psychologists have not always seen eye to eye, possibly in part because each was inclined to stress what the other neglected. But life includes both sets of problems. Heretofore psychology has in effect left no place in our training schools for psychiatric problems. But that day is passing and must pass.

This does not mean that each high school or grade teacher must be an expert in dealing with behavior cases. This is not possible. It would, however, seem to mean that each such teacher should know enough of the subject to be sensitive to the grosser signs of mal-adjustment and to report them in time to others who know more. Courses must be given and textbooks written to take care of this need.

We may profitably think of each large high school as having on its staff someone reasonably expert in adolescent personality problems so as to take direct care at public expense of the ordinary cases that arise only too frequently (much more frequently than most of us have thought). For other schools, each system should have, perhaps as "visiting

teacher," some one (or more) who can investigate cases of behavior trouble and in not too difficult instances recommend appropriate treatment. Granted proper expert knowledge it seems not too much to hope that most cases of outstanding "badness" can be helped if not cured.

We conclude then that we must lay aside every prejudice from either past or present that prevents us from seeing "behavior problems" as originating in definite and more or less ascertainable causes. Punishment must be viewed as a hazardous expedient distracting attention from study and probably creating and aggravating in the aggregate more difficulties than it helps. It is study we

need and the willingness to follow the argument. Right or wrong behavior can be properly so judged only in the light of a philosophy of life that in addition to other values involved takes adequate account of the facts of biologic life and their influence on conduct. Psychology must not make for a narrowing of child or school life, but must help as best it can at every point to care for the full life. Our teacher training institutions must prepare teachers to see behavior problems in the more adequate modern light and to coöperate cordially with officials duly appointed to deal with personality and behavior cases. Behavior must be viewed as continuous with the rest of observable experience.



Why Get Together in Groups?

OLGA ADAMS

University of Chicago

IN THE last twenty or thirty years there have been many important changes in the field of kindergarten-primary education. One of the first, outstanding changes in the kindergarten was the reorganization of the curriculum which brought about a freer, much more natural program of activities. This change to a freer type of organization in both school routine and subject matter is making some little progress in the primary grades at the present time. When this reorganization was taking place the emphasis was put upon appropriate subject matter and the psychological organization of this material in contrast with the logical which had been in vogue. Then a new educational idea came into prominence, namely; the child, not the subject matter, is of prime importance, and we all began to "develop the individual." Teachers were urged to surround children with suggestive materials and opportunities for learning and then to retire from the situation as much as possible and let the children teach themselves. Group activities, especially those which were organized in some part by the teacher, were frowned upon as forces which tended to stifle individual development. Extreme followers of this idea did away with almost all organization in routine school matters as well as in subject material. Such freedom in school organization, especially when handled by

unskilled teachers, usually resulted in a small amount of useful learning and either very little social development or many undesirable social-behavior habits. As a result, this idea of individual development has been extended or enlarged to include social development and has as its aim the production of an individual who not only shows initiative and ability in self-expression, but also recognizes, respects, and meets his responsibilities within the group in which he lives. A popular topic for discussion in this present day is "The Behavior or the Responsibilities of the Individual within his Group," the "Development of Desirable Social-Behavior Habits," or some such wording of the topic. It is not my purpose to attempt to justify this present-day educational ideal or to list the elements which enter into desirable social-behavior but to describe one type of enterprise which I have found very valuable in bringing about such behavior, namely; the group enterprise.

In order that this discussion be very concrete I shall describe a group enterprise undertaken by the children of the kindergarten with which I am associated and then list and discuss some of the habits and attitudes which I saw being developed. This particular activity was undertaken last year after Christmas. The children had taken down a house made of blocks and a very crude store

made of boxes in order to have room for their Christmas party. On the first day of their return in January, Ann said, "How bare the room looks. Shall we begin to build today?" The rest of the group—some thirty-six children—fell in with the suggestion immediately and, in response to the question, "What are you going to build?" named the house and store again. The children were then asked, "Is a grocery store the only kind of store that a family needs?" "No," was the instant response, "They need," and suggestions came so fast that it was difficult to record them all. After some thirty had been written on the board, Edward said, "That will be a city if we build all those things." This idea was met with great enthusiasm by all and thereupon it was decided to build a city in the kindergarten. The teacher had had this plan in mind and would have led the discussion around to the idea if Ann had not, so obligingly, introduced it. The list was gone over again and each child was asked to tell why he thought the building which he had suggested was important. Others of the group added their ideas. The following are quotations from this discussion; "Fathers must have a club house where they can swim and have a gymnasium," "We must have a restaurant because sometimes after we have been riding in the country mother is too tired to cook dinner," "We must have a church where we can go to sing and learn our Sunday School lessons," "We must have a grocery store where we can buy food." There was at least one reason given for every building suggested.

Inasmuch as the habit of planning for work before actual construction was begun had been instilled in the children

in the fall some child said, in response to the question, "Shall you begin to build immediately?", "No we'd better draw a picture of a city first." It was then suggested that each child might draw and cut out a picture of the building that he had named and then all these cuttings could be put together in "A City Plan" for, "most cities do have a City Plan." At first houses, stores, churches, etc. were all mixed in together in this poster plan but when the attention of the children was called to this, one boy said, "We must have a business street—63rd Street" (our most flourishing nearby business street). No child knew what the street on which houses were built was called and so the term "residence" was given them and they loved the sound and the grandness of the new word. There was then a great deal of rearranging in the plan and further, animated discussion concerning the location of such buildings as schools, churches, hospitals, etc. However, these problems were all solved, for the most part by the children but occasionally by the teacher who had to act as arbitrator and give some explanations and information.

With the city plan on the board, the problems which confronted the children were the following: "Can all these buildings be built in this room?" "If not, how many can be built and which are the most important ones—ones that you need most in a city?" The first problem was answered in the negative immediately for the children had had a little experience in building in the fall and they had in mind big buildings of the type in which children of kindergarten age are especially interested—those which they can get into themselves. The second and third questions took a

good deal more thought, further discussion in which most of the children took part, and some little voting. At last five buildings—a house, a department store, a church, a hospital, and a garage—were decided upon. At first it seemed impossible to get along without all of the stores suggested and finally the teacher said, "There is a certain kind of store that sells almost everything that

one building at a time or all five buildings at once?" "We could have committees," one child said. This idea of committees had also been acquired in the fall. The committee plan was agreed upon and the children were asked to think it over and be ready to choose on the next day the committee on which they wished to work. There was not a child who did not come the next



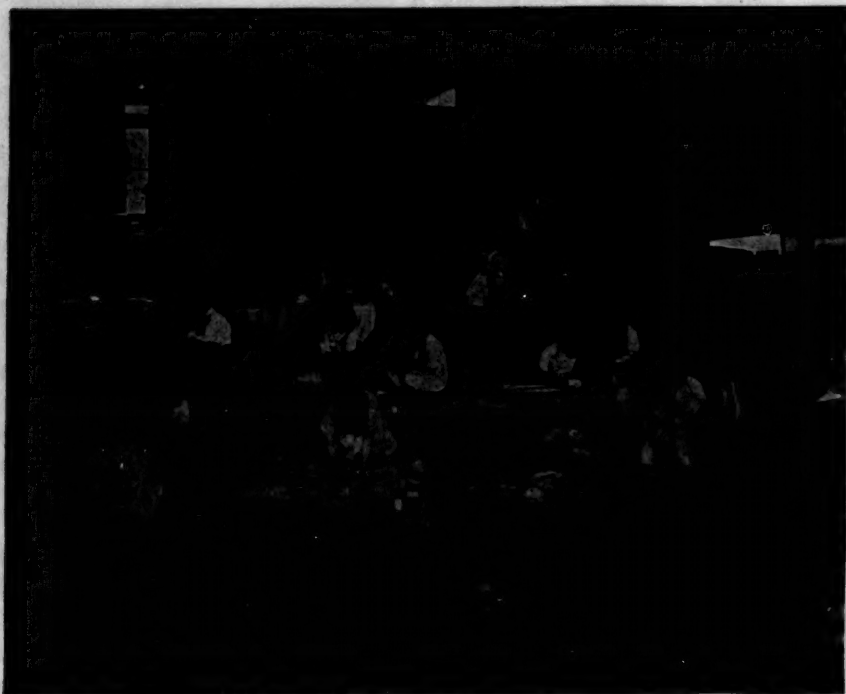
"THE AGE OF SPECIALIZATION"

a family needs—food, dry goods, clothes, furniture, books, toys, flowers, jewelry, etc. "Oh yes," said Edward, "you mean the 'Fair.'" "Yes," said the teacher, "a store like the 'Fair' which is called a department store." Thus, some fifteen stores were included under the general head, department store. The next question asked by the teacher was, "How are you going to build the city—

day with his mind made up. The committees were formed and each went to work on its special problem. In every case possible, real buildings were visited; plans were drawn; size and location of building in the room were agreed upon; materials for the buildings were decided upon and gathered together; the buildings were constructed and appropriately equipped.

This group enterprise extended over a period of three months during which time not one child asked to change his committee or to leave the work altogether. There was sufficient variety of occupation to hold the attention and interest of the children over this long period and to provide work for all kinds and grades of skill. The various buildings in the city were the center of

children who were having the difficulty as to the proper and appropriate ways of using the building in which the trouble occurred. Children helped each other a very great deal in the organization of appropriate play. Karl John said to Buddy, "That's no way for a store-keeper to act. He must be polite to the people who come to buy." John said, "Mary, you can't play that way.



PULLING TOGETHER TO MAKE THE PULLMAN

dramatic play from the time space for them was blocked on the floor. This constant use was the best stimulus for further, more detailed construction and more detailed equipment. At no time was the dramatic play directed but it was supervised when it became too disorganized. Such supervision was usually in the form of discussion between the teacher and the child or group of

People don't grab things out of the windows and run. They have to come and buy them." All such comments had some little weight and, if necessary, were backed up by the teacher. The use of the various buildings was not confined to the children who were constructing them. All were free to play where they wished but individual committees often gave directions for proper or better use

of their buildings. The following are stenographic reports of dramatic play centered about the department store and the hospital:

Ruth: (Doll in her arm, purse in her hand) "And how much is this a yard?"

John Jay: "Just which do you mean, Miss? We have two kinds special today and tomorrow and the next day. I think your child would like a dress out of this one."

Ruth: "Yes, red is a good color but I was looking for something more pink-like. Have you anything pink-like?"

John Jay: "Well, we have this" (showing a bolt of goods) "and this too" (showing another).

Ruth: "Now let's see. I have to have this made before I go to Europe. I'm going to Europe, you know, and I have to have this made before I go." (Ruth's mother was in Europe at the time.)

John Jay: "Yes, yes. Well then, I'll wrap this up for you and have it sent over."

Ruth: "You can just wrap it up. I'm in a hurry to have it made so I'll have my chauffeur call for it tomorrow. My child needs some gloves too. How much are these a pair?"

John Jay: "These are \$6.29. Do you want them too?"

Ruth: "Wrap them up. They are fine. Here is a thousand dollars." (Giving him five play pennies—change from her purse.) "I think that will be enough. Stop crying" (to the doll in her arms). "I'm ashamed. I just can't take my baby any place without her disgracing me."

John Jay: "Come again, tomorrow."

Ruth: "I won't bring my baby though. She always disgraces me wherever I go." (Whereupon she walked out of the store and toward the house.)

* * *

Frank: "Hello, Raggedy Andy, what's the matter with you, dear?"

Lois: "He's sick."

Frank: "Just what is the trouble? Let's see his hands." (Reflects a few minutes—turns hands inside out.) "My, this is a pretty bad case, I guess. We'll have to keep Raggedy Andy here in the hospital, Mrs. Marcia, will you please put this baby in a bed please."

Marcia: "There are no more beds."

Frank: "Then put him in a bed with the

other child. It's just seasickness, I guess. I can't tell yet. Come back tomorrow, Mrs., and I'll let you know how sick your child is." (Frank writes letters on piece of paper.) "Marcia, give him some of that medicine from that blue bottle."

Marcia: "Which one?"

Frank: (Getting up and presenting her with an empty Vick's bottle). "Here nurse, give him this now and again tonight and then let me know how he is. Maybe he'll be worse or maybe he'll be better." (Lois wheels Raggedy Ann into the hospital.)

Frank: "Well, here's Raggedy Ann. What's the matter with her?"

Lois: "I really don't know, Doctor."

Frank: "You are having a lot of trouble with your children. This is a very bad case. Nurse, take this child and put her to bed right away. This is a very bad case."

Lois: "What is the matter with her? Measles?"

Frank: "No, this isn't measles."

Lois: "I'll come for her tomorrow at 12 o'clock, and be sure to have her hat and coat on. I can't wait a minute."

Frank: "All right Mrs., she'll be all ready at 12 o'clock. Bring some more children over if they're sick. Marcia, tell Amy to bring her children here again. They must be sick now, too."

It has seemed wise to go into a rather detailed description of this group enterprise in order to give a clear picture or understanding of a situation which, it seems to me, has all the elements that are necessary for the cultivation of desirable social-behavior habits and attitudes and I'm sure we are all agreed that it is a social individual that we want to develop. The situation is very real to the child—he is actually living, in a most normal fashion, in these experiences—and it is now recognized that it is only under such conditions that learning, which really functions, takes place. The undertakings in this group enterprise are sufficiently large and complicated for the children to feel the need of group organization. Any child will

undertake the making of an aeroplane by himself but when he contemplates an enterprise as big as a store he feels, "I must have some help on this." Thus, children are given help and direction, when it is needed, in the technique of working together in a situation which, they themselves feel, needs this type of organization. This situation capitalizes that natural desire of children of kindergarten age to be with each other and work and play together. It makes it possible for all to have the experience—those who are a bit awkward and diffident in social situations as well as those who are quite at ease. It is a situation where a teacher works with a group in the capacity of an advisor and helper rather than a dictator. "Where is that teacher who works with us?" asked a child of a new student teacher whose name was hard to remember.

If the group enterprise does bring about a situation in which real learning can take place, what are the social-behavior habits which may be developed more surely and more fully than in a plan where group organization is left more or less to chance? (It is not the purpose of this talk to discuss the opportunities that this type of organization gives to creative expression, to the acquisition of considerable information and skill in the manipulation of materials, and to the development of certain individualistic traits such as self-dependence, concentration, earnestness of purpose, etc., although such opportunities are present for this training quite as much as for social training). First and foremost, children learn respect for the rights of others and this is a training which is apt to be conspicuously lacking in an organization where "what I am making" is of chief

importance or where what one child is making has little relation to what another is doing. No child was seen wilfully upsetting or destroying the work of another at any time during the construction of the city. A marked evidence of this respect was recorded on a day when the house committee was carrying blocks from the corridor through a rather narrow passageway in which a child was pasting large sheets of paper for grocery store covering. Each child, with considerable effort, stepped over the paper although none of them had been instructed to do so. If there had not been respect for the work and the rights of this child who was pasting how many feet would have been planted in the middle of that paper?

Children learn to respect the abilities and products of others. In their conference periods which precede all work they often consider which children do a certain type of work best. "Let David nail, he can pound them in straight." "Oh, what good clay vegetables you have made," said one boy as in passing he stopped to view the work of one committee. "Don't the magazines look like real ones. I'm going to buy one." There is interest and a feeling of pleasure in accomplishment of others as well as of self largely, I believe, because things are being made for the use of all rather than for the individual.

A splendid type of unselfishness is built up. "He's playing with my things," "Don't touch that—I made it to take home" are cross and selfish remarks that are never made in group undertakings. All things are made for others to touch and use. Occasionally a committee does feel that its building is not being used properly and then it

takes that problem up with the rest of the group—never saying, “You must not touch” but “you must handle more carefully.”

The group enterprise provides a great deal of practice in cooperation—fair play—learning how to give and take. There is seldom a child so lacking in self-assertiveness that he has nothing to contribute to the group in the way of suggestion or work and there is no child so pronounced a leader that he does not at times have to follow another's lead. Two children, both decided leaders, wanted to be mother. The argument had grown quite heated and just as Betty was about to use fists she thought of a plan and said, “Will you let me be mother part of the time?” The other agreed and the play went on happily. The committee plan of organization gives excellent experience in cooperation. Tasks for the day are discussed and taken by children according to their likes and abilities and harmony within the group is the rule.

The individual's feeling for his responsibility to the group is very marked in such enterprises. “I can't go down town with you” one child remarked to his mother. “I've got to be in school to help put up the roof.” “I promised Betty that I'd get this doctor's desk done today for she needs it,” said David to a teacher. Even little Jacob whose responsibilities were rather light because of his youth and lack of skill brought his mother to see the window around which he had pasted a trimming. The

routine workers—the nailers and pasters—have just as much feeling of responsibility as the creators of scales and cash-registers.

An introduction to the problem of civic responsibility is made through group enterprises. A three-year-old visitor began to pull on a loose end of paper which covered the department store. A kindergarten child saw her, ran over and stopped the destruction, then got the paste and mended the damage—she was not on the department store committee but felt responsible for the whole city. “The house is awfully messy. May I straighten it up,” said Susan. Isn't this exactly the way we want children to feel when property is being destroyed or streets, parks, houses littered?

In conclusion, when I observe the behavior of children in their work and play in these group enterprises and see that they are behaving, in unsupervised situations, in a manner which gives evidence—of their respect for the rights of others; of their respect for the ability and achievement of others; of their willingness to share their products with others; of some little understanding and ability to cooperate; of a sense of individual responsibility to a group—that is, the living up to what is expected of one by the group; and of a sense of responsibility to group property and organization, I am convinced that the group enterprise is a very valuable type of organization for the development of desirable social-behavior habits.

The Age Factor

ARNOLD GESELL

Yale University

UNLESS the fundamentalists are right, the universe did not come into existence in a twinkling. Some stars are young; others old; parts of our earth are much more recent than others; the very elements of chemistry differ in "age." Science has steadily built up the concept that the physical world is a product of ordered growth. The biological sciences are extending the same concept to living nature, including the human mind. Among teachers, at least, it is a truism that the mind of the child is subject to the laws of growth.

The truism, however, like many truisms, is so profound that it is readily forgotten and even opposed in actual practice. Narrower concepts of training and rules of discipline come into conflict with the genetic approach at every turn. Particularly in the complex field of character education, it is easy to ignore the factor of immaturity in the growing child.

Susanna Wesley, in a letter to her famous son, John, in 1711, naïvely summed up her philosophy of preschool education in the following striking passage: "In order to inform the minds of children, the first thing is to conquer their will and bring them to an obedient temper. To inform the understanding is a work of time and must with children proceed by slow degrees as they are able to bear it: but the subjecting the will is a thing which must be done at once; and the sooner the better."

Has this distinction between the will and the understanding entirely vanished from our present day attitudes toward young children? Parents are ready enough to grant that children must proceed by slow degrees in the learning of arithmetic, reading, and spelling; but in the field of social behavior, in matters of obedience, unselfishness, truthfulness, tidiness,—these same parents often assume a rigorous ethical attitude which exacts more than the child mind can meet. There is an absolute theory of morals which takes an unduly gloomy view of certain behavior problems, and conversely places an unduly flattering estimate on conduct which is only superficially "good." The only corrective for an over rigid approach to early behavior problems is a more genuine appreciation of the age and growth factors which condition all behavior, whether behavior of "the understanding" or of "the will."

The lying of young children presents a problem in point. This lying reflects at once the immaturity of the child's logic and of his conduct. It clearly illuminates in the influence of the age factor. Piaget in his recent volume on *Judgment and Reasoning* has admirably shown how the egocentrism of the child makes him astigmatic and insensible to contradictions of language and of thought. Up to the age of eight years the child's thinking literally teems with contradictions. For example an in-

telligent boy of seven and one-half years explained that boats float because they are light; but in the next breath he asserted that big boats float because they are heavy and strong. Being so big and strong they easily support themselves in water, he reasoned! The boy was, of course, blissfully unaware of the contradiction in his statements. In such psychological soil, veracity (in the

adult sense) does not always take root.

If the child's failures in logic need tolerance, his limitations of conduct deserve sympathetic interpretation. The goal is not to instill perfection, "the sooner, the better;" but to establish conditions favorable to growth. A just regard for the factor of age and growth alone can prevent our zeal for training from going too far.



THE FIRST THANKSGIVING AT PLYMOUTH—1621

Fear

HAROLD ELLIS JONES AND MARY COVER JONES

University of California

AMONG poets and novelists the emotional life has always been a subject of leading concern. Philosophers and "arm-chair" psychologists have at times inclined to a different emphasis; immersed in the affairs of reason, it is natural that they should ignore emotion, and assume intellect to be a prime determiner in human activity. Hence we have the theories of such thinkers as Spencer and John Stuart Mill, who conceived of behavior as a rational pursuit of comfort and a calculating avoidance of pain. During the past decade the psychoanalyst and the behaviorist, following the poet's insight but armed with a heavier burden of facts, have from differing angles stressed the rôle of emotions in human adjustment, and have led us to think of personality not merely in terms of the development of intellectual processes, but also in terms of those organic drives and cravings which underlie our conscious life. We have begun to realize that much of our conduct which we formerly believed to be rationally planned, is really the direct outcome of impulse and emotion. Rational explanations may occur as afterthoughts. (Perhaps afterthoughts are the commonest kind of thoughts.) The child in the nursery who asks to have his door open at night, gives as a plausible reason the fact that his room will be better aired, and he may really believe this to be the deliber-

ately thought-out origin of his desire. A younger child, however, will frankly and noisily insist that he wants the door open because he is *afraid* to be shut up alone. As we grow older and more thoughtful, we become increasingly skilled in cloaking our emotional desires with ingenious embroideries of reason. It is necessary to have a poet's naïveté, or a scientist's carefully regulated freedom from illusion, if we are to understand the real significance of impulsive and emotional factors in our everyday conduct.

The development of mental tests has provided another source of influence which has resulted, particularly among educators, in assigning too much regard to the verbal and intellectual phases of behavior. Though we are as yet unable to measure emotions as competently as the testers measure intelligence, we are nevertheless beginning to sense the significance of the emotional patterning which lies at the basis of temperament. Even in the field of the intellect, while it is true that our basic capacity to learn is a matter of intelligence, our *desire* to learn is to a large extent affected by emotional drives, and the processes which blur and interfere with learning are chiefly processes which involve disturbance in our emotional life.

It becomes quite obvious, then, that we need to pay closer attention to the nature of these emotional factors, and

to study the methods by which emotions can be investigated and controlled.

THE "PRIMARY" EMOTIONS

What are the fundamental human emotions? Dr. Watson, basing his views upon the observation of young infants in experimental situations, proposes three elementary emotional patterns: *rage*, the response of an infant to being hampered in its movements; *fear*, the response to pain, a loud sound, or to loss of support; and *love*, the response to cuddling or stroking sensitive skin areas. The complex play of emotions in the life of an adult, is regarded as the outcome of *conditioning* among these simple and instinctive modes of reaction; if the child two years of age is afraid of other things than of the stimuli mentioned above, this is because a process of association has intervened, so that his fear has become transferred from loud sounds to various visual objects, odors, contact stimuli and the like, which have been habitually associated with loud sounds.

This behaviorist formula has been accepted widely in the current popular literature, although it is by no means a matter for full agreement among psychologists. Its prestige arises from the fact that it is based upon observation rather than speculation, a condition which inspires confidence among laymen as well as among scientists. In other textbooks of psychology, however, we find a somewhat different listing of the primary emotions. Floyd Allport, in a study of facial expression as an index of the emotions, reports five somewhat distinct emotional patterns: the pain-grief group of expressions, the surprise-fear group, anger, disgust, and pleasure. Various nuances and complications of

emotion are regarded as resulting from mixtures of these primary patterns, and from the association with varying trains of ideas. Thus, a baby's facial expressions of surprise or fear (brows raised, eyes wide open, nose dilated, mouth opened, lips depressed at corners etc.) may in the adult show characteristic special changes in amazement, dismay, disillusionment, terror, horror, and anxiety.

It should be noted that Watson's three basic emotions, with their stimuli, were derived from studies of very young infants. With older children it is possible that the list would need to be supplemented both as to the stimuli which by *original nature* may provoke emotion, and as to the pattern which the emotion takes. We are here assuming that changes in emotional pattern may not be wholly due to learning, but may to some extent occur as the result of an innate process of ripening, either of a general responsiveness, or of special response dispositions.

WHAT DO CHILDREN FEAR?

This point of view may be illustrated in connection with some of our experiments on children's fears. As children grow older, they begin to show differences in the number and kinds of things of which they are afraid. The only general statement which seems to cover all the cases of fear which we have observed in children is that children tend to be afraid of things that require them to make a sudden and unexpected adjustment. Stimuli which are startlingly strange, which are presented without due preparation, or which are painful or excessively intense, belong in this category. For example, in our study of the reactions of preschool

children to flashlights, darkness, false-faces, snakes, rabbits, frogs, and the like, it was found that the animal which most often caused fear was the frog,



ALL IS WELL IF THEY DON'T JUMP

the fear not usually appearing at first sight of the frog, but at sight of the frog suddenly jumping. Likewise, a child was often afraid of a jack-in-the-box; a species of beetle which suddenly snaps up in the air when placed on its back, was fairly efficient in arousing alarm; while caterpillars and earthworms produced no more than a mild curiosity in the younger children.

While traces of these childhood fears may last throughout life, affecting adult behavior profoundly, the overt expression of fear is apt to be less marked as childhood is outgrown: partly because the adult meets fewer unfamiliar situations (encounters fewer stimuli for which his action system contains no ready adjustment) and partly because he has learned to mask and repress the more conspicuous symptoms of emotion. From watching individuals of different ages in similar test situations, it is evident that the effectiveness of a stimulus and the type of emotional response are greatly affected by maturity. From

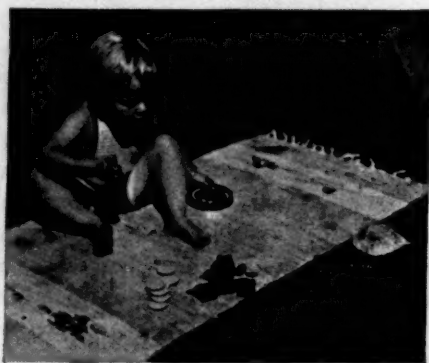
the diffuse responsiveness of the infant, to the blunted and inhibited reaction of the blasé adult, the variety of unpredictable behavior in fear producing situations provides a rich field for research.

How does the sight of a snake affect a baby, a toddler, a youth, a grandfather? A few cases, chosen from our laboratory notes, show an interesting developmental sequence.

EXPERIMENTS WITH YOUNG CHILDREN

Experimental situation

A pen 8 by 10 feet by 6 inches high was built on the nursery floor. Within this a number of blocks and toys were scattered, and two black suitcases were placed flat on the floor near the wall. The suitcases could be opened easily by a child; one contained a familiar mechanical toy, the other contained a snake of a harmless variety (*Spilotes corais*) about six feet in length and



LIVELY FROG PLAY-MATES, AND A TURTLE WITH A SHUT-IN TEMPERAMENT

slightly under four inches in girth at the middle of the body. When free in the pen, the snake glided actively about, showing a powerful and agile type of

movement, and frequently protruding a black forked tongue about an inch in length. If the child did not open the suitcase containing the snake, an observer was able to do so from a concealed position behind a screen, by pulling a string attached to the lid of the case.

Subject 1. Irving, age 1 year 3 months. Irving sat in the pen, playing idly with the ball and blocks. After being released, the snake glided slowly towards Irving, whipping up his head and deflecting his course when within 12 inches of the infant. Irving watched unconcerned, fixating the snake's head or the middle of his body, and letting his gaze wander frequently to other objects in the pen. The snake furnished only a mild incentive to his attention.

Subject 3. Enid, age 1 year 7 months. Enid sat passively in the pen, playing with blocks in an unsystematic fashion. The snake was released and moved fairly rapidly about the pen. Enid showed no interest, giving the snake only casual glances and continuing to play with her blocks when it was within two feet of her. When (later) the snake was held by the observer directly in front of her face, she showed no changes in facial expression, but presently reached out her hand and grasped the snake tightly about the neck.

Subject 8. Sol, age 2 years 3 months. When the snake began moving about the pen, Sol watched closely, holding his ground when the snake came near, but making no effort to touch it. He resisted when an attempt was made to have him pick up the snake (this was the same guarded reaction that he had shown previously with the rabbit and white rat). He stood unmoved when the snake was thrust toward him, and showed no overt response, save an attempt to follow visually, when the head of the animal was swung in front and in back of him, neck writhing and tongue darting. After the snake was returned to the suitcase he went to it again and lifted the lid, looked within and then closed it in a business-like manner.

Subject 11. Laurel, age 3 years 8 months. Laurel opened the suitcase, picking out two blocks which were lying against the snake's

body. The snake was immobile and she evidently had no differential reaction to it. The snake was taken out. Laurel: "I don't want it." Averted reactions, moved off, then stood up and started to leave the pen, although without apparent stir or excitement. Experimenter: "Let's put him back in the box." Laurel: "I don't want it." Experimenter: "Come and help me put him back." After slight urging she came over and assisted, using both hands in picking up the snake and dropping him quickly when she reached the suitcase.

Subject 12. Edward, age 4 years 2 months. Edward sat down in the pen and began playing constructively with the blocks. At sight of the snake he asked: "Can it drink water?" Experimenter: "Do you know what it is?" Edward: "It's a fish." He puckered his brows and made slight averted reactions when the snake was swung within a foot of him, but this was overcome through adaptation in three trials. When encouraged to touch the snake he did so, tentatively, but soon grasped it without hesitation at the neck and body.

Subject 15. Ely, age 6 years 7 months. On opening the suitcase he smiled and looked within for nearly a minute, making no effort to reach, and dropping the cover quickly when the snake moved. The snake thrust the lid up with his head, and glided out into the room. Ely took up a post of observation outside the pen. Experimenter: "Do you like him?" Ely nodded in the affirmative, and smiled. Experimenter: "Touch him like this." Ely very hesitatingly touched his back, and withdrew his hand quickly, later consenting to stroke him. He asked: "Does he have teeth?" a reasonable enough inquiry. When the snake moved in his direction he drew away and looked distressed, but was persuaded to help pick him up and to put him back in the suitcase.

Of 15 children, 7 showed complete absence of fear indications; their age range was from 14 to 27 months, with a median of 20 months. Eight individuals showed "guarded" reactions, 2 of these revealing distinct fear, and 2 showing marked averted responses when the snake gave the appearance of

aggression; the other four being classified as "unafraid but wary." The age range of the "guarded" group was from 26 to 79 months, with a median of 44 months. The only case of a child under three years showing fear was Doris, age 26 months, and her reaction changed markedly the following day, as indicated by the report of the group response:

The suitcase was taken into the nursery when 9 children were present. Most of them recognized it, and one of the older children said, "There's an animal in there." Several of the children moved forward to touch it as soon as the snake was released; Doris, who had been afraid the day before, now showed no fear, crowding close and attempting to hit the snake's head with a wooden boat. The two oldest children in the group remained cautious; Lawrence, age five years seven months, climbed up on a table, and John, age five years ten months, retained hold of the experimenter's hand, and refused to come near. After a few minutes of play, the experimenter said, "Now everyone has touched it except John and Lawrence." Both of these now came forward and touched the snake's back, social pressure being evidently effective in encouraging a more positive response.

EXPERIMENTS WITH OLDER CHILDREN

The following results were obtained in a group of 36 school children, with an age range of from about six to ten years:

The children were sitting on low chairs in a circle about 20 feet in diameter. The experimenter placed the suitcase containing the snake in the middle of the circle, asking, "Who wants to open the suitcase?" Harry, eight years of age, opened it, and took the snake out when requested. The snake glided about the floor, passing between the feet of one of the boys; no disturbance was shown. The experimenter now asked, "Who wants to touch the snake?" holding the snake's head so that children had to reach past it, and walking slowly around the inside of the circle. The first 11 children touched the snake with no hesitancy. Four boys about ten years of age hesitated, one

withdrawing markedly, another falling over backward in his chair. (This was due to an emotional heightening, arising partly from fear and partly from a desire to show off.) Two girls refused to touch the snake, but jumped up and ran around behind the circle, following the experimenter and watching closely. An undercurrent of reassurance was constantly heard, "He won't let it hurt you. Go ahead, touch it, it won't bite."

Only 9 of the 26 children showed definitely resistive behavior, and these were chiefly boys and chiefly the oldest in the group.

EXPERIMENTS WITH COLLEGE STUDENTS

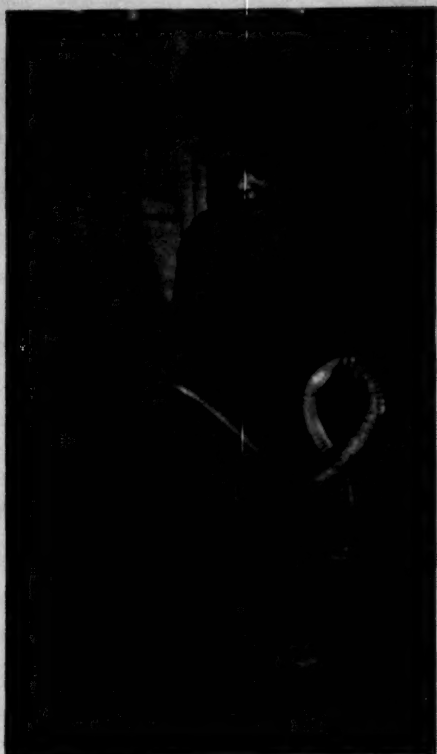
How do adults behave, when presented with a similar situation?

In several classes of undergraduate and graduate students, the snake was introduced as "a perfectly harmless animal; the skin of this reptile has a smooth and pleasant feeling, and we guarantee that in touching him no one runs the slightest risk." In some classes the same reptile was used as in the preceding experiments; in others the snake was a boa constrictor, somewhat smaller and of a less "dangerous" appearance than the *Spilotes*. Of about 90 students nearly one third refused to have the snake brought near; one third touched him, with obvious hesitation and dislike, while the remainder (including as many women as men) reached forward with apparently complete freedom from any emotional disturbance. Several of the women obviously regarded the presence of a snake in the room as an almost unbearable ordeal, and several of the men solved the problem of emotional conflict by retiring to a neighboring room until the experiment was concluded.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER EXPERIMENTS

These studies exemplify a simple observational method, and can be readily repeated with other groups. It is desirable that the problem should be approached by cumulative records on

the same children, presenting a series of animals (under standard conditions) to the *same* children at intervals of three months. It is also desirable that the observational data be checked by more rigorous laboratory methods, including the use of instruments, such as the galvanometer, which record the inner aspects of emotional stress. With some



"I AIN'T AFERD OF SNAKES"

of our adult subjects, we noted that while they stroked the snake in an apparently composed fashion, the subject's face and palms were nevertheless covered with beads of perspiration, indicating a marked degree of emotional tension. With young children such repressions are less likely to occur: the emotion is more superficial, and expresses itself

readily and frankly in external symptoms. In studying the elimination of a fear, however, we should bear in mind the possibility that an attitude of tolerance and self-assurance may be merely a mask for an internal emotional upset; methods of elimination which "cure" the external signs may sometimes fail to reduce, and may even increase, the actual emotional intensity. We are now collecting evidence on these points, by means of standard laboratory procedures.

It should be pointed out that our experiments of this character should not be attempted except by workers who are accustomed to handling both animals and children. A snake should not be used until he has been adequately tamed and has established a record of reacting well to handling. Some non-poisonous species are likely to be dangerous because of vicious and unpredictable tempers. The situation must always be kept in control, so that a nervous child is not over-frightened; a slight degree of fear, which he later recognizes as groundless, may be of hygienic value, but a marked emotional upset is never hygienic, and the experimenter must take care to avoid traumatic episodes. In regions where poisonous snakes are common, it may be undesirable to train young children in emotional tolerance. The subjects used in our experiments were city children who had never before seen a snake of any kind, and who would be unlikely to encounter a poisonous snake in the course of a lifetime. Even in infested districts, it would seem desirable to cultivate a reaction of intelligent caution, in place of the blinding and tumultuous fear which was shown in so many of our adult subjects.

THE NATURE OF FEAR

In our group of 51 children and about 90 adults, children up to the age of two years showed no fear of a snake; by three or three and a half, caution reactions were common; children of this age paid closer attention to the snake's movements, and were somewhat tentative in approaching and touching it. Definite fear behavior occurred more often after the age of four years, and was more pronounced in adults than in children. No sex differences were observed. This "maturing" of a specific fear may be interpreted in at least three ways: (a) as the result of conditioning, (b) as the result of the ripening of an innate fear of snakes, (c) as the result of a general maturation of behavior, which leads to greater sensitiveness and more discriminatory responses.

The first explanation, although it is current among present-day behaviorists, does not seem to be applicable to our group. Our children were developing in a common environment in an institution, and had no opportunity to be conditioned against snakes, either through pictures, stories, or from encounters with live specimens. When first seen in our experiments, the snake was as novel to them as a unicorn, and their response to it must be regarded as a novel and unpractised adjustment. If the response changed from the age of two to the age of three years, this development cannot be interpreted in terms of *specific* training.

The second explanation we are also inclined to reject; it assumes an instinctive fear of snakes, a reaction which is latent and immature at birth, and which develops by a special process of innate growth; such a belief is related to the

doctrine of innate ideas and the inheritance of acquired characters, and is not in keeping with present day theory. It is possible to understand the inheritance and ripening of a general disposition, such as sex, for here we are dealing with a definite internal source of stimulation, and with a glandular basis which is subject to growth. It is possible to understand the inheritance and ripening of a specific simple pattern of response, such as a startled response to loss of support, which may be dependent upon a structural development in the semi-circular canals or in the vestibular nerves. But the fear of a visual object, such as a snake, involves an emotional response to a complex and variable perception, differentiated out of a total situation. The perception will vary according to the size and other characteristics of the snake, according to its behavior and its distance from the perceiver. It appears very unlikely that such a complex and many-faceted perceptual-emotional disposition can be inherited, or that it can develop by innate ripening.

We are left, then, with the third interpretation, which is in agreement with the theory of fear discussed on an earlier page. Fear may be regarded as a response to certain changes in a total situation: changes requiring a sudden new adjustment which the individual is unprepared to make. The arousal of fear depends not only upon situational changes, but also upon the individual's *general* level of development. With a young infant, perhaps the only changes which are fear producing are those which substitute loud sounds for quiet, pain for comfort, or loss of support for a previous state of bodily balance. As a child develops, his intelligence innately

matures, and his perceptions become enriched through experience. New things startle him because of his keener perception of the fact that they *are* new and unusual. We have an old saying, "They who know nothing fear nothing." It would be equally true to say, "They who know everything fear nothing." *Fear arises when we know enough to recognize the potential danger in a stimulus, but have not advanced to the point of a complete comprehension and control of the changing situation.*

ELIMINATING FEAR

One of the most striking results of our studies arises from the comparison of fear elimination in children and in adults. All of the preschool children readily became adapted to the snake and to other animals. With careful manage-

ment, even those who were initially most distressed, quickly lost their uncertainty under the influence of social example. This was not the case, however, among the adolescents and adults, for here we encountered many instances of sharp and persistent fear, which could not be counteracted except through a long course of training. Their fears had become "set" through the years, reinforced by many conditionings, and perhaps complicated with symbolic horrors of various sorts. In this we have concrete evidence of the impressionability of early childhood; a given amount of educational effort may be much more effective with preschool children than with the less plastic emotional organizations of adults. If we would shape the emotions, we must begin early.

In December

The First "R" and its Correlates

REMEDIAL CASES IN READING.....	Laura Zirbes
SELF-CHECKING IN READING.....	Bonnie K. Bowen
AN APPROACH TO READING.....	Marian J. Wesley
ORAL LANGUAGE.....	Frances Jenkins
SPEECH TRAINING.....	Emma Grant Meader

A Symposium on Dramatization

Discipline vs. Corporal Punishment

W. E. BLATZ

University of Toronto

A CHILD is necessarily born into a social community. He *must* adjust to his surroundings. Some do so efficiently, others find the task very difficult. The most important aspect of a child's environment, as he later discovers, is the complex system of social conventions and customs. Whatever hereditary influences there are in the life history of an infant, and it would be idle to dismiss them summarily, they are relatively negligible when the topic of social adjustment is being discussed. The influences of the surroundings are the more important. The adjustment to these environmental factors is a learning process.

Too frequently we assume that learning is confined to tasks in school or to special habits such as walking, talking, etc. The learning activities of the child are perpetual and continuous. They start before birth and continue until death, at least. The child is always learning. We may arbitrarily select a short slice of his life activities and study or observe this as a whole, e.g. "My child is learning fractions," or "My child is learning how to ride a bicycle," but these are only episodes in the life history, which cannot be divorced from his previous history, nor can their influence upon his later life be discounted nor avoided.

The child, then is *always* learning. He learns to tie his shoes, to use a spoon, to

drink out of a cup, to say intelligible words, to control his temper and his sphincters, to evaluate the behavior of himself, his mother, his nurse in terms of his own welfare and of others. Learning is unavoidable, everywhere and at all times.

Implicated in every activity there is a past history of learning. In later life we talk of obedience, tardiness, persistence, laziness, instability, etc. These are words we loosely apply to a form of behavior, inadequately defined, which has been evolved from the learning of past days, months, or years.

If this is true, all adults who have to do with the direction of childhood are *teachers*. Parents while training children, their own, adopted, or loaned for the afternoon party, are, aside from any physiological contribution to the existence of the child in question, not "in loco parentis," but are "teachers." Social workers and mental hygiene specialists are, under these circumstances, in the same situation. The question should not be, "How to *make* children obey?", "How to *instil* ambition?", "How to *keep* children quiet?", "How to *punish* children?"—but—"How can I so manipulate the environment of the child, social, physical, intellectual, such that the product of my arrangement or teaching shall be satisfactory to *me*, to *society*, and to *himself*?"

The first prerequisite is for the teacher,

parent, or nurse to know the fundamental rules of learning and second to be sure that the ultimate goal to which he is striving is not a projection of his own desires and wishes, forgetting the obligation to the child and to society.

A discussion of the laws of learning would be out of place here and would take us too far afield to do justice to the topic. We will emphasize, however, that there are at least four aspects to the situation which should be kept in mind. First the child's activities are never *undirected*, there is always a *goal* or better a *motive*, sometimes apparent as when the child is learning to put the spoon into the mouth with some of the food still in it, but often hidden as in much of the seemingly irrelevant, useless, and idle behavior of the child. Secondly there is the *attack* at the problem which mirrors all of the past history and physical endowment of the child, and *thirdly* the end product of this attack which may be success or failure as indicated by the fact that the goal has or has not been reached. In other words the motive has been satisfied or not. Perhaps the last point should be divided into two, because success and failure are two separate and distinct phenomena.

And finally with reference to "teaching" it is imperative to keep in mind the fact that the behavior of the teacher, (commonly called the "example" of the teacher) is frequently far more potent than the expressed activities of teaching in their effect upon the pupil.

If we examine the "learning process" more closely we find evidences of a phenomenon, which makes for successful adjustment however little it is understood. The exact method by which learning goes on is still a closed book. Why does a subject, child, or student

proceed in a manner such that these acts, which will lead to the goal, are fixated or made easier to perform, whereas, those acts which prevent or delay satisfactory adjustment are eliminated or avoided? Whatever theories one may have upon this subject, there is one which is very suggestive, namely that the immediate sensory consequences of an act determine whether it shall be repeated or not. If the sensory consequences are distasteful in any way that act will be replaced by one of which the sensory consequences are more pleasing. For example a child is presented with a burning candle. The bright light appeals to the child, or he is attracted by the bright light and reaches for it to make it a more permanent part of the environment. In reaching, he grasps at the flame and is burned. He withdraws his hand because of the sensory consequences but still wishes to have this appealing object. He reaches again. The same result. By chance he later touches the wax below the flame and finds that by grasping this he may avoid the unpleasant consequences of burning and still enjoy the brightness of the flame. The average child would *learn* this whole act quite readily. We would say he has learned to avoid fire.

If we investigate this situation we find that there are four attributes of these consequences that make rapid and efficient learning possible. Namely *immediacy*, *inevitability*, *invariability*, and *compatibility*. In other words the burning pain follows immediately upon the child putting his hand in the flame; is always a consequence of so doing; is always burning and never vicariously caressing or scolding; and is nicely graduated to the length of time the hand is kept in the flame. These four attributes make

learning possible and comparatively easy.

The next step in the evolution of the child is when he realizes that not only is there a goal toward which one may strive in order to satisfy the motive operative at the moment, i.e., hunger, thirst, curiosity, etc., but that there is a certain exhilaration in the success itself and a certain discouragement in the appreciation of failure. This is the beginning of the recognition of the artificial completeness of any series of acts and is represented by the presence of an end product;—an elephant cut out of paper, a doll dismembered, a watch disarticulated, a problem in algebra solved, a degree won, etc.

The next step is when the child realizes that others are interested in the end products of a "learning process." Mother is pleased at the shoe successfully pulled on; father is pleased at the first articulated "daddy"; nurse is pleased at the successful eating with a spoon. On the other hand displeasure is the accompaniment of other acts or end products. The child finds it rather difficult at times to systematize these latter experiences because they are sometimes inconsistent. Sometimes it is smart to say "darn" and everyone laughs and father smirks his pride, but at other times the social consequences are wholly at variance to this.

Thus in brief the evolutions of the learning child is through three stages, one in which sensory consequences are dominant, the next in which his own contribution is the important factor and the final stage in which the wholly social factors of approval and disapproval dominate.

As can readily be seen the stages somewhat overlap but in general the age at which each predominates is a progres-

sive one. Unfortunately the second stage is the most helpful and the most fruitful, but it is in the majority of cases quite overshadowed by the later stage because society is not satisfied in giving only its commendations or recriminations but there must be artificial stamps of both; prizes, honor rolls, baby shows, youthful orations, Ph.D. degrees, gold medals, Halls of Fame, etc., and on the other hand institutions for criminals, social taboos, cliques, castes, strata, or what you will. It is exceedingly difficult to avoid using these standards as the goal of behavior rather than those of individual success and failure.

Every child must go through the three stages. Which one is emphasized depends upon the opportunity afforded for *learning*. The regulation of his early life, the arrangements of his environment are left to his parents or delegated by them to others. A term which may define this whole situation is *discipline*. What are the essential factors of a good disciplinary regimen? They may be summed up very briefly according to the above discussion. The child should be so brought up as to develop (a) an appreciation of the consequences, sensory and otherwise, which follow every act, (b) a willingness to accept these consequences as the result of his own efforts whether success or failure, i.e. "to play the game," (c) the relegation of social approval and disapproval as far as possible to the background. This latter precaution is necessary in order that the discipline be largely impersonal, e.g. a child should not be sent to bed because "mother says so" but because the time 7.30 or 9.00 o'clock has been a regulation laid down and adhered to throughout the life history of the child.

It is extremely difficult as the child

grows up to make the social consequences of his acts fulfil the four conditions of the sensory consequences, namely immediacy, inevitability, invariability, and compatibility.

No child is inherently bad or good. He must *learn* to act such that his behavior is judged as adequate or inadequate. A child is never born an inveterate liar nor the apogee of truth telling. He must learn what is the accepted mode of behavior. If he learns that no one will trust him or believe in him at any time if he wilfully perverts the facts too frequently, he is on the way to adequate adjustment; but if he learns that the crux of the situation is to "avoid being found out in a lie" his adjustment then depends upon his skill, but obviously it is inadequate.

If the parent or teacher attempts to deal with such a situation in terms of *good* or *bad* or by means of arbitrary punishment, the only justification for such treatment is conformity of plan to the four principles enunciated above. Can she discover every lie? Can she discover it immediately? Can she "punish" it in the same way always? And can she graduate the consequences according to the degree of the lie? It is quite apparent that none of these can be fulfilled.

This is true whether the "crime" be lying, stealing, disobedience, sex delinquency, bullying, or what not. The proper procedure is to say, "This behavior is the result of learning. What were the circumstances of this learning? What have *I* contributed to the situation? What must be done in order that the child may learn how to deal with this situation in an adequate way? Thus a mother who saw her four-year-old child only when she herself was not otherwise

socially engaged, had her brought to the dinner table to eat with the family. The child ate very "badly," used her fingers, inhaled her soup, spilled her food on the table, etc. The mother was very annoyed and slapped her hands and finally spanked her and sent her to bed. If inquiry had been made it would have been found (as it was) that the maid, who supervised the child at meals, paid little attention to the niceties of eating (after all they are purely social) and was interested only in getting the food into the child with the greatest dispatch and the least distress for herself and the child. The treatment of the mother was obviously inadequate if not unjust. The mother interpreted the behavior of the child as wilful disobedience, because she repeatedly said, "Don't use your fingers!" The child of course had not learned how *not* to use her fingers.

Where does corporal punishment fit into the picture? Obviously the aim is to use pain as a deterrent. There is no doubt that it "works," to use an empirical expression. Spanking, slapping, caning if it is severe enough, will stop the act in question. Not only does it stop the act but it is so easily administered. (Parents and teachers are so much bigger and stronger than children and pupils.) It saves time and as far as the adult is concerned the incident is closed. If it were only closed for the child it would be quite as adequate and efficient but the child's personal attitude has been affected and the emotional experience cannot be overestimated in its future significance.

The experimental literature dealing with animal learning illustrates that animals subjected to electrical shock in certain situations learn more quickly than without. On the other hand if not

nicely regulated the animal will refuse to cooperate at all.

Corporal punishment is justified only when the learning is at the stage of "sensory consequences." Hence on this score it might be justified in infants. *But*—it must also conform to the four principles of sensory consequences; *immediacy*—a parent or adult should *always* be in attendance in order to administer punishment at once (no machine has as yet been invented for doing this); *inevitability*—there must never be an occasion upon which the consequences fail, again constant attendance is demanded; *Invariability*—when once the parent adopts slapping this should be continued, or caning or spanking as the case may be, there should be no variation; *Compatibility*—the punishment must always "fit the crime," e.g. putting thumb in mouth—1 slap, crying when father wants to sleep—2 slaps, spitting out its food—3 slaps, and so on. As can be seen this is becoming very fanciful however logical it is. It is apparent that the use of pain under artificial conditions is at best a purely arbitrary affair. Furthermore, a consistent plan for its use is impossible. It should be realized that administering corporal punishment to an infant most frequently satisfies the emotional demands of the adult and for that reason might be justifiable to *some* adults. (Histories of infants left in the care of foundling homes indicate frequent administrations of corporal punishment. What right have we to deny to these poor unfortunate parents, usually low, intellectually and socially, the right of punishing their infants if those better endowed may use this method. Should brutal treatment of children be confined only to the "intelligentzia" and the "upper classes"?) From the child's

point of view it is wrong because it is unnecessary and is administered before the child's behavior can be analyzed and the motive actuating the behavior discovered. By that time corporal punishment is too late. A consistent discipline affords ample opportunity for learning to adjust to social situations without the use of corporal punishment.

Should corporal punishment be used in early youth? Yes, but only if the four conditions can be satisfied. But this is an impossibility. At this time furthermore the personal attitude of the punisher is introduced. Corporal punishment in nine cases out of ten is administered under emotional strain both for child and adult. There can be no adequate application of sound principles of teaching when one party is torn by anger and the other in the throes of fear or other emotion equally as devastating.

Should corporal punishment be used with adolescents? "No!" say the parents "because they are old enough to know better" but the real reason is that, discretion being the better part of valor, the children are not "too old" but "too big."

Corporal punishment is an expression of the use of expediency; it denies careful investigation; in the majority of cases its administration flies in the face of what little is known of the laws of learning; it is a safety valve for adult emotions; it is a lazy man's way.

Discipline is the regulation of the child's life such that he may learn to adjust his behavior to the social customs and practices into which he has been born. (One hears frequently the expression that modern views tend towards giving the child a free rein, "permitting him to express himself." Some adults quote self-complacently their own youth

as instance of what a wonderful sample they are of corporal punishment methods. "Children are too much pampered in this day," etc., etc., is their refrain ad nauseandum. These advocates of "an eye for an eye" are all too patently manifesting the smoldering of their own rebellion against the unjust treatment of their own early peccadilloes. Furthermore no sane psychologist advocates absolute "freedom" for children.)

The suggestions embodied in the above intimate that the child should accept the consequences, sensory and social, of his acts, *whether they are severe or lenient*. The point is not the severity but the *consistency*. The adult responsibility is to provide an environment for avoiding

the more serious consequences. Corporal punishment is frequently the least serious of all consequences as any one can testify who knows the type of child who comes into Juvenile Courts. They would gladly accept a spanking and be "cleansed of their sin."

This plan requires an intelligent knowledge of childhood behavior and, in episodic occurrences, a careful investigation and treatment. Too frequently corporal punishment as a rapid, apparently efficient, palliative, is employed. It is only a subterfuge and rationalization for the careful inquiry which is the responsibility of every parent, teacher, or any who has to do with the training of children—or adults.

KINDERGARTEN EXTENSION

Those interested in the continued extension of kindergartens as a part of the public school system will welcome *A Primer of Information About Kindergarten Education* (prepared by Mary Dabney Davis, Specialist in Nursery-Kindergarten-Primary Education, Bureau of Education).

In addition to giving the present status of kindergarten education in the United States, this leaflet defines types of legislation which have been found effective in different situations, lists organizations now working for the establishment of additional kindergartens, and quotes opinions of educators regarding the values of kindergarten education. It also quotes from recent studies on the values of such education.

Organizations or individuals wishing to present arguments for the establishment of kindergartens to parents or to the local Board of Education may obtain single copies of this leaflet free of charge by addressing the Superintendent of Documents, Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.

ROBERTA HEMINGWAY

Avenues of Spontaneity in Art

Costumes for the Holidays

AGNES DAY

When helping with costumes let us remember that it takes very little of this sort of thing to satisfy the very young child. We do not want to overstimulate or develop sophistication. The five-year-old child feels quite gaily attired when his head is ornamented and the seven or eight-year-old child may feel completely costumed in very simple dress.

INDIAN HEADGEAR

1. *Materials*

Corrugated paper, such as comes around parcels for protection.

Chicken feathers.

Calcimo paint or any fresco paint (opaque water color).

Brass fasteners.

Process

Cut band of the paper long enough to go around the head with the corrugation going the narrow way of the band.

Paint this band on the smooth-surfaced side in stripes and spots of bright colors.

Fasten ends with a brass fastener.

Put feathers through the holes of the corrugation.

To make the chief's hat let the band extend down the back.

2. *Materials*

Poster papers or any brightly colored cutting paper.

Tag board.

Paste, scissors, and brass fasteners.

Process

Cut colored papers 2" x 8" and fold once the long way.

Hold by the folded edge and cut off one corner of the other edge to make a feather shape. Fringe before unfolding.

Cut a 2" band of tag board long enough to go around the head.

Paste pieces cut off from colored papers when making feathers onto the band for decoration.

Paste the feathers onto the inside of the band.

Fasten ends with a brass fastener.

CHRISTMAS HEADGEAR

Materials

Light weight white bristol board or any heavy white paper.

Silver paper.

Paste, scissors, and brass fasteners.

Process

Cut white paper band 5" wide and long enough to go around the head.

Fold this band once end to end.

Cut from the top of the fold down to a narrower band, making a point in the middle when unfolded.

Cut two silver stars (using pattern).

Paste one band on the back of the band at the point.

Paste the other star on the front, point to point, with the star on the back of the band.

Fasten with a brass fastener.

INDIAN DRESS

Materials

Ubleached muslin—obtained at any dry goods store—20 cent quality.

Brown dye—Tintex, obtained at any drug store (a cold water dye) \$.15.

Process

Cut the cloth twice the length from the shoulder to the bottom of the costume—the width, from shoulder to shoulder.

Fold end to end.

Cut out a hole on the fold for the head.

Fringe the bottom.

Tie a narrow piece of the cloth around the waist.

Another piece of cloth the same size may be decorated with paint and used for an Indian blanket.

A potato sack may be used for this costume—holes cut for head and arms, fringed at the bottom.

A sugar sack may be used in this same way, dyed or painted in gay colors.

CHRISTMAS DRESS

Materials

White cheese cloth.

Silver paper.

Thread and needle.

Process

Cut the material as in the Indian dress only cut it wider to give more fullness with this thinner material, do not fringe the bottom. Gather on the shoulders and sew from under the arm to the bottom of the dress.

Cut narrow strips of silver paper and sew them on at each shoulder.

Red and green paper may be used instead of silver.

SUGGESTIONS FOR CHRISTMAS GIFTS

1. Christmas Candles.

Materials (For 40 small candles).

1 lb. of paraffin, 10 cents at Woolworths.
1 lb. of beeswax, 60 cents at any drug store.
1 ball of wicking, 10 cents at any hardware store. Any heavy, soft string may be used.
1 tube of oil paint or house paint may be used.
Small wire hairpins.
Tall tin cans.

Odd pieces of crayons may be sorted as to color, and used. Additional beeswax with the crayons makes a better candle.

Bayberry wax may be used with no additional beeswax. This may be obtained at the Industrial Arts Cooperative Service, 519 W. 121st St. N. Y. City. \$.60 per lb.

Process

Melt wax and paraffin on a hot radiator or a hot plate after the heat has been turned off. This material is very inflammable. Add oil paint for color.

Process

Make a flat cord, knotted.
Add a bead, made of Moldolith at each end.
Young children may use a heavy cord, unknotted, or a ribbon.

3. Bean bags.

Materials

Unbleached muslin obtained at any dry goods store, 13 cent quality.

Crayons.

Needles, thread, yarn.

Process

Cut a six inch square or circle of the muslin.
Draw an animal on the muslin or color a stencil pattern made from a surprise cutting. Use crayon for drawing.

Lay decorated muslin pieces colored side down on a paper and iron with a warm iron. This melts the wax into the paper and leaves the dye in the cloth.

Sew the bag wrong sides together, running stitch, and leave a hole large enough to turn the bag through right side out.



INDIAN HATS OF CORRUGATED PAPER

Cut wicking length desired for candle. This cannot be longer than the can is tall.

Tie wicking onto the hairpin which serves for a handle.

Fill can with hot water and pour melted wax, paraffin, and paint onto this.

Dip wicking into can and out again. When partly cool smooth and straighten waxed wicking. Now dip repeatedly quickly in and out, cooling a little each time before redipping.

2. Book Markers.

Materials

Moldolith. This is modelling material which turns to stone when exposed to air. It may be obtained from any school supply house as Milton Bradley at 50 cents per pound can.

Silk cord—a fine cord of hard weave obtained at any dry goods store for 3 or 5 cents per yard. A hard twisted string or cotton cord may be used.

Fill with beans and sew up the hole.

Finish edge with yarn in buttonhole stitch.

4. Aprons.

Materials

Same materials as for bean bags.

Process

See pattern.

Decorate with crayons in the same way as bean bags.

5. String box.

Materials

Carton and ball of string.

Cutting papers in colors or black.

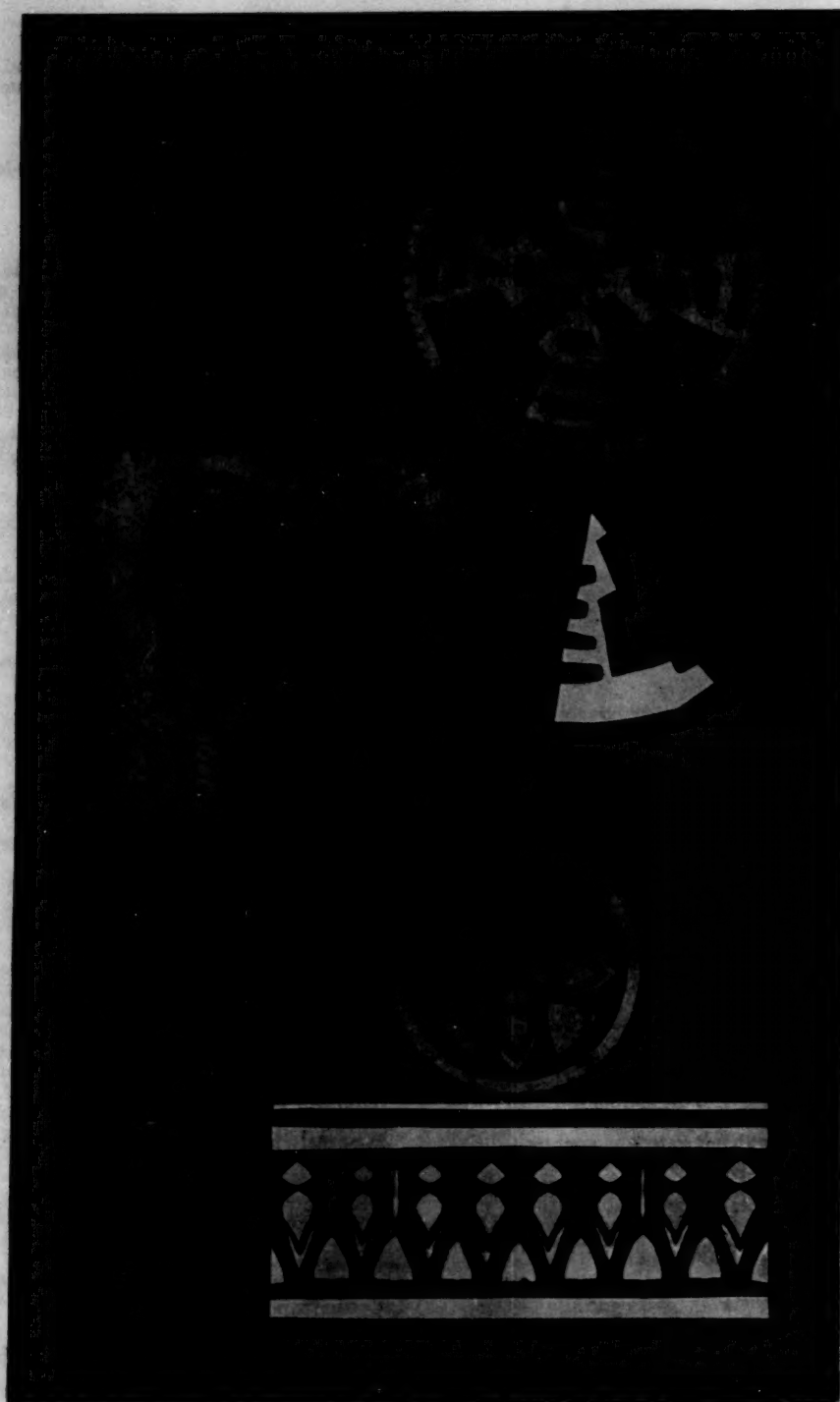
Shellac.

Make a "surprise cutting" in border pattern to fit around the carton.

Make a "surprise cutting" in circular form to decorate the top.

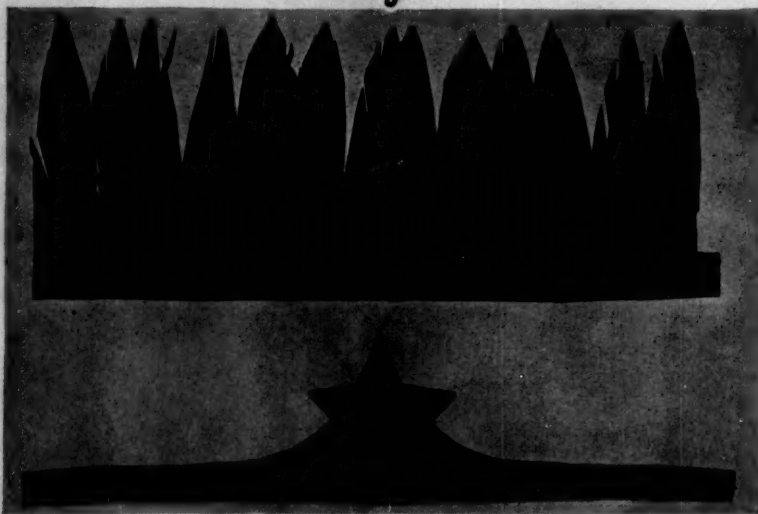
Paste cuttings onto carton and shellac.

Cut a tiny hole in the center of top and place ball of string in carton with end through the hole in the top.

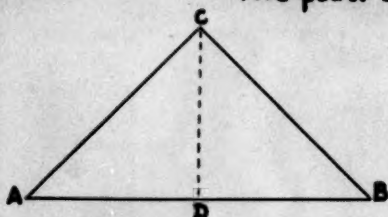




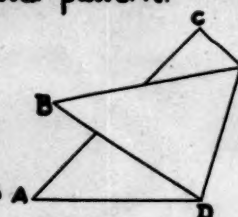
Headgear.



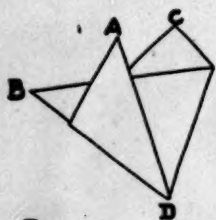
Five-point star pattern.



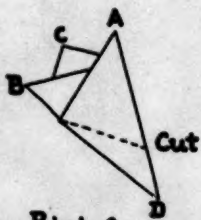
A square,
folded point to point.



Point B
folded to left.



Point A
folded to right.



Point C
folded back, left.



Star ready
to unfold.

The Teachers' Laboratory

Painting Easel-ly Done

This stenographic report of a group criticism of paintings in a beginning first grade class, shows how standards are raised. We do not have any set period for painting or drawing in our kindergarten and primary grades. All kindergarten, first, second, and third grade classes have easels for painting and long-handled paint brushes. Several children use the easels all of the time, one group following the other in rapid succession. During periods when a group is working with the teacher, other children will be painting pictures. Each child paints one picture at least once every two days. Many teachers post a schedule for turns in painting and each child crosses off his name as he finishes. A group criticism of paintings is held once a day.—JULIA LETHFIELD HAHN.

Children paint in the painting studio six at a time all morning, when they are not in group with the teacher. At 9:15 teacher has first group in reading. The other children go to their seats for seat work. Teacher then names six of the children at their seats to be the first group to paint that day. From then on the children manage their own painting time. They are taught that not more than six children are to be in the studio at one time; that when there is a vacancy the child first discovering it may go.

Group discussion of paintings is held from 11:15 to 11:30, and proceeds as in the following report:

Tr.: Is everyone sitting where he or she can see? (*Tr.* is standing in front of the children.)

Children: Yes.

(*Tr.* pins a painting on the board and the child who painted it stands and tells what the picture represents.)

Ch.: The little boy is going to drown and the Life Guard is going to save him.

Tr.: What are going to call it?

Ch.: Life Guard Saving a Boy.

Tr.: I think that is a nice picture, don't you?

Children: Yes.

Tr.: You got the idea from our beach scene, didn't you?

(Another picture is put up.)

Ch.: Three men going out to wreck from Life Saving Station to save the people on the boat.

Tr.: What is this? (Points to look-out tower.)

Ch.: They climb up and see if boat is wrecked.

Tr.: What is this? (Points to Boat House.)

Ch.: Where they keep their boats.

Tr.: Why do you like that picture very well?

Ch.: Because the color is nice.

Tr.: Yes, the colors carry well. This carries well. It is dark against light background. I think he did one thing very well. The Life Guards would not be as tall as the tower. Have you a name for the picture?

Ch.: Life Guards Going to a Wreck.

Tr.: I think that is a lovely picture. (Another picture is put up.)

Ch.: Dempsey and Tunney are going to shake hands and then they are going to fight.

Tr.: These are the stools that they sit on, I suppose? It was you that did the picture of Babe Ruth. Does it carry well? He has hair; he has a forehead; a nose; a mouth; and a chin. You can see them stepping, can't you? He has arms. I think that is a very nice picture. What are you going to call it?

Ch.: Dempsey and Tunney Shake Hands.

Ch.: I know Dempsey. He is one of my mother's best friends. I saw him once.

(Another picture is put up.)

Ch.: A boy, two flowers, and girl and trees.

Tr.: We can see what is in the picture.

What is the story?

Ch.: Girl is going to pick a flower and man is going for a walk.

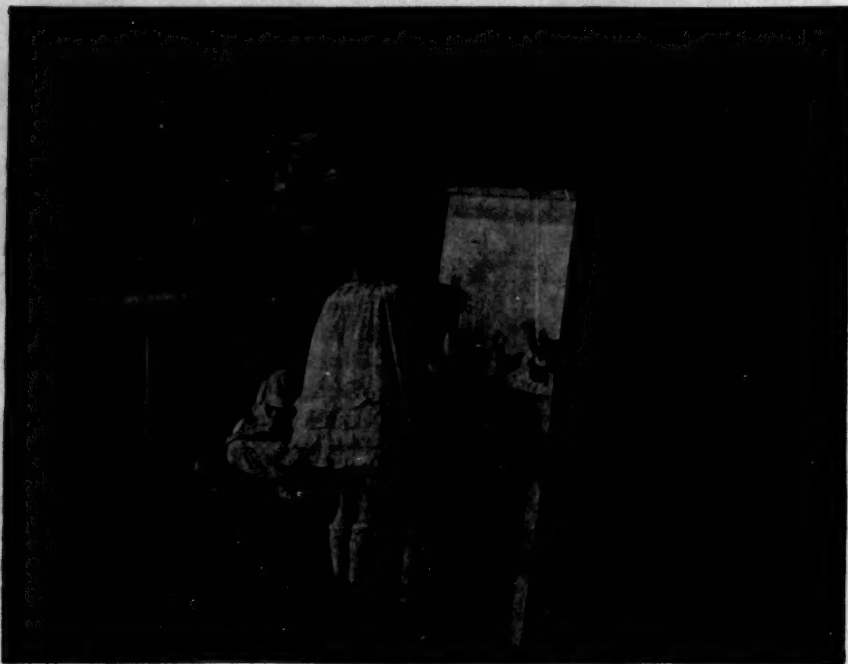
Tr.: Don't you like the face on this girl? What has she?

Ch.: Why, his eye is where his ear should be.

Tr.: Eyes go next to noses. I think the head is very fine. The hat would not fall off. What about the body?

Ch.: His body should be longer to match his head.

Tr.: Mrs. Potherick is going to show you something. (She shows children how his body should be the size of two heads.) I think he did the girl beautifully. What are you going to call it?



THE ARTIST AT THE EASEL

Ch.: Forehead, nose, two lips, and a mouth.

Tr.: He did not try to squeeze all of the body on. Is there anything you could tell him to make the picture better next time?

Ch.: The sleeve is brown and should be blue.

Tr.: Why?

Ch.: Because the dress is blue.

Ch.: This is funny. (Points to the face of the man.)

Tr.: What is funny about it?

Ch.: Boy Taking a Walk.

Tr.: There is more to it. Could not we say, "Boy and Girl Taking a Walk?" (Takes another picture.)

I am so interested in this I cannot wait to see what it is.

Ch.: That is little girl eating sand at the beach and that is another little girl.

Tr.: What are they doing?

Ch.: She is a little baby and that is her little sister.

Another Ch.: Baby hasn't hair.

Tr.: Is the little sister so little she is bald headed?

Ch.: Yes.

Tr.: You can just see they are really sitting down. What is that?

Ch.: That is ground line.

Tr.: What is that?

Ch.: That is her house and those are the steps.

Tr.: What are you going to call it?

Ch.: A Girl and her Little Sister Eating Sand.

Tr.: I wonder what this is about. Looks interesting. To whom does that picture belong?

Ch.: Those are two little girls. They are playing ball. One says, "Give it to me." That is a little doll she was playing with. Not a real doll.

Tr.: I think that is the loveliest doll.

Ch.: Looks like a baby.

Tr.: I wonder if you could tell anything about this picture that would help Anna make a better picture next time?

Ch.: She has a red nose.

Tr.: I think that is meant to be her mouth.

Anna did not say to herself, forehead, nose, two lips, and chin. Now what do we say?

Children: Forehead, nose, two lips, and chin.

Tr.: They have nice feet to walk on. (Another picture is put up.)

Ch.: One is Jean and one is Peggy. Peggy wants the ball and Jean won't give it to her.

Tr.: Look at this lovely big girl.

Ch.: This is little girl; that big girl is jumping rope.

Tr.: I like to see her skirts come to her knees. Notice she has two arms. Is there something you could tell Alma about the girl's head?

Ch.: She has blue hair.

Ch.: I could make brown hair now.

Ch.: She did not say forehead (etc).

Tr.: That is just it. She did not say forehead. Would you say her eye was too big? Yes. (Another picture is put up.) To whom does this belong?

Ch.: It is two girls swinging. That is baby sister. (This about a third swing with a small figure in it.)

Tr.: I like this picture because the girls' arms show what girls would really be doing in a swing. The skirts come to the right place. Does that picture carry? The colors stand out?

Children: Yes.

Ch.: The other one is standing up.

Tr.: You are going to call it what?

Ch.: Little Girls Swinging.

Ch.: Looks like they are pumping.

Tr.: (Another picture.) Isn't that the loveliest face?

Ch.: That is big old lady and tree and big flowers. She is going to pick some apples.

Tr.: Is there any criticism?

Ch.: Lady is as big as the tree.

Ch.: She goes up past the tree.

Tr.: Sit down and let me tell you something. See me make the trunk shorter. (Teacher makes the trunk shorter and in that way moves the tree up.)

Ch.: The hat looks like it is coming off.

Tr.: I think it is a good hat.

Ch.: She has no hair.

Tr.: She hasn't a spear of hair. What are you going to call it?

Ch.: Old Lady Picking Apples.

Ch.: (Another picture is put up.) A little girl named Frances taking her dog for walk.

Tr.: But look at those feet. How can she walk? Will you put larger feet next time? Her legs are moving properly. Nice dog; he has nice ears. Hasn't the girl a lovely head? What are you going to call it?

Ch.: Frances Taking Her dog for a Walk.

Tr.: Oh my! Here is that one we saw.

Ch.: It is a lion going to feed his baby lions.

Tr.: Where is it?

Ch.: In the woods.

Tr.: Is there any criticism?

Ch.: Put the trees up high. Those little trees.

Tr.: Yes, the big tree is quite all right but the little ones should be up higher.

Ch.: The lion's hair goes back.

Tr.: Perhaps the wind is blowing. (Another picture.)

Ch.: Girl has a dog and an automobile.

Tr.: Who is in the automobile?

Ch.: Man.

Tr.: Is he any relation to the lady?

Ch.: No.

Tr.: This lady again I like because he made a big head but did not squeeze the body on. Have you something to say about the picture?

Ch.: That is lady, holding a baby, taking it out for walk. She has ribbon on her hair.

Tr.: Who has?

Ch.: Little baby.

Tr.: The mother has lovely feet to walk with. Her legs are really walking.

Ch.: Anna said that is Mrs. Petherick walking with her baby.

Tr.: Mrs. Petherick? So that is what it is?

Children: (laugh) (Another picture is put up)



A PRODUCT OF THE EASEL

Ch.: The man would run into the lady. (Picture showed man coming up behind her in an automobile.)

Tr.: I think he is up higher.

Ch.: The tree is up in the air. (Above ground line.)

Tr.: What can you do to change that?

Ch.: Put it down.

Tr.: Is there a name to that picture?

Ch.: A Girl Taking a Walk with Her Dog.

Tr.: Is this the picture you had seen? What is it about?

Ch.: That is a boy holding a toy dog, and a tree.

Tr.: It is a tin dog, I suppose. That is why it is green. Can you tell what could be done with the body to make a better picture?

Ch.: Too small.

Tr.: Might be bigger perhaps.

Ch.: Did not put any pants on him.

Tr.: Yes, please put trousers on men. I think he has a box for a body. How could it be fixed? Men have flat backs

- like that. (Tr. marks over the drawing). The rest of their bodies are in proportion. Remember the trousers and the feet. I like the tin dog very much. (Another picture.) Here is a big lady who does not seem to be doing much.
- Ch.: That is a lady. She is going to point to her baby. That is Mrs Petherick.
- Tr.: Where is the baby? (There was no baby shown in the picture.)
- Ch.: She is out in the hills.
- Ch.: The lady's feet are too small.
- Tr.: The trouble is she hasn't any legs. She should have longer legs, like that,—because her skirts would come to above her knee. Is there anything else you can say? Let us talk about the arm. Where does it come out of?
- Ch.: Out of dress.
- Tr.: Not out of neck. Don't you think that would look better? (Draws arm from shoulder.) The part I like best of all is the face and hair. The next time let us see if we can have a better looking lower part.
- Ch.: (Another picture.) Lady swimming in the water.
- Tr.: Is this her bathing cap?
- Ch.: Yes.
- Tr.: I like the color of the ocean. It is green-blue water. What is this?
- Ch.: Rock.
- Ch.: She dived off it.
- Tr.: (Another picture.) I don't know what this can be.
- Ch.: That is a lady. Old Mother Hubbard; she took apples off the tree and put them in her basket.
- Tr.: I like old Mother Hubbard very much. I like the face; it has all the parts. That is a very nice picture, Billy Matsu. Would you like to take it home to your father?
- Ch.: Yes.
- Tr.: All right, I will put it over here. This looks like one of Arthur's.
- Ch.: Yes, it is a man going to get on the Los Angeles boat.
- Tr.: Do you know what this is?
- Ch.: Gang plank.
- Tr.: What is this?
- Ch.: Umbrella.
- Tr.: Do you think it would be better to have a few drops of rain?
- Ch.: No, the sun is shining.
- Tr.: Then is it a parasol instead?
- Ch.: Yes.
- Tr.: I like the man and the boat, but not his feet. Such feet to walk on all of the time. Do you know why this picture carries well? Because he uses dark colors on light paper. (A new picture is put up.) Is there a story to this picture?
- Ch.: Man going out for a ride.
- Tr.: Do you think that this picture is as good as Nathan usually does? No, but you have been sick. When you get better, will you do a better picture again? (Another picture.)
- Ch.: That is a boy going to pick some apples on a tree. Them are—
- Tr.: Those are.
- Ch.: Those are apples falling off the tree.
- Tr.: Is there any criticism of the boy's legs?
- Ch.: Too small.
- Tr.: I think they are too small. If you are going to go somewhere what do you have to do to get there?
- Ch.: Walk.
- Tr.: How would he make his legs go? You watch me make the legs walk. (Tr. draws legs on the board.) Are these legs walking?
- Ch.: No.
- Tr.: Isn't that a lovely head?
- Ch.: (Another picture.) Lady going to sweep the floor.
- Ch.: She should hold broom other way.
- Tr.: She has it in both hands. I think she is rather nice lady after all. But, she has no hands.
- Ch.: (Another picture.) That is a little girl. She is going into her house. She has just picked apples and eaten them.
- Tr.: Just what is this?
- Ch.: Fingers.

Tr.: Would you hold your fingers open?

She would not have her fingers open.

She might swing her arms. Look at the poor thing with no feet again. This one has absolutely no feet and this one has little ones.

Ch.: I would put the tree up higher.

Tr.: Look at Mrs. Petherick drawing this.

(She draws on board.) (It is a figure of legs walking.)

After the last painting is discussed, the five best are pinned up and numbered. Children then vote on which is the best one, and it is put in a space on the wall reserved for "To-day's Best Picture."

STAGES OF DEVELOPMENT IN PAINTING

MANIPULATIVE STAGE

Children in this stage need opportunity for fearless expression in clear, brilliant colors. Their interest is in the activity itself and in the satisfaction to the sense of sight through the use of brilliant color. Children do not remain in the manipulative stage for a long period but must be encouraged to satisfy themselves completely in this stage before they are ready for the next, the symbolic stage.

All children who use paint for the first time, whether in kindergarten or a primary grade, begin by experimenting in this way.

SYMBOLIC OR MIRROR STAGE

In this stage children use the picture they have painted as a mirror for their thoughts. A dash of color may be described by the child as "a baseball game" or "children riding on a haystack," etc. Children in this stage do not have a very definite plan when they begin to paint but after the picture is finished they read into it their own thoughts. Unintelligible masses of color become modes of expression to the child. This stage of development must be tactfully handled. In group discussion at this stage no comment should be made on how well a thing was drawn but emphasis placed on ideas expressed. First give the child an opportunity to explain his pictures and then encourage him to look for new things and try out new ideas. As Margaret Mathias says, "A child starts with an idea to express. As he paints, the idea grows."

During the symbolic stage the child must be unhampered by the limitation of technique. Most first grade children pass from this stage into the next, the realistic.

REALISTIC STAGE

Children leave the symbolic stage gradually. If encouraged to paint much and fearlessly during the symbolic stage, they will gradually begin to appreciate references to "how to make a better picture." Attention to technique must follow the painting of the picture rather than precede it. Encourage the child to paint different pictures instead of painting the same one to improve houses, etc.

In this stage, children have a story or definite idea to express and fearlessly paint their picture at the same time making it as real as possible. The story to be told is uppermost but the child is satisfied to critically examine the picture. The largest mistakes are recognized first and through tactful group criticisms technique grows from day to day, wisely, without losing any of the fearlessness of expression which must be preserved above all things.

The New and Notable

Fortieth Anniversary of the Child Study Association

This Fall marks the Fortieth Anniversary of the Child Study Association of America which, for the greater part of that time, was known as the Federation for Child Study. Out of a small group of women who met to discuss their individual problems has grown a national organization whose work has extended to the far corners of the earth.

As a fitting celebration a One Day Conference has been planned to be held on November 20th at the Hotel Pennsylvania, with a Morning and Afternoon Session, followed by a dinner.

Mrs. Howard S. Gans has been President for over thirty years and Mrs. Sidonie M. Gruenberg is the Director of the organization.

Parental education and child study will be presented from two distinctive points of view at the Conference. General principles and outstanding tendencies in the rapid development now going on will be discussed by leading authorities. In addition to this analysis of fundamental ideas, the actual working programs of state, university, and volunteer organizations engaged in child study and parental education will be presented by their own staff members. Together these two portions of the program will give an authoritative survey both of the ideals and objectives, and of the practical work of various types of organizations throughout the country.

At both the Conference and the dinner, prominent leaders will bring to special aspects of child study and parental education the vital contribution of their own experience. Owing to the absence abroad of many of those closely associated with parental education, no complete announcement of these speakers can be made at the time the

Annual Program goes to press. The full announcement will, however, be mailed in the early autumn to Association members and others who are interested. Among the speakers of whom announcement can be made at this time are: Mr. and Mrs. Felix Adler; John Lovejoy Elliott; Bernard Gulick; Sidonie Matsner Gruenberg; Porter R. Lee; E. C. Lindeman; Henry Moskowitz; William Russell; Edward L. Thorndike; Ralph P. Bridgman; Cora Trawick Court; Gertrude Laws; S. M. N. Marrs; Robert E. Simon; and Edna Noble White.

Personal-Professional

Frances Jenkins, contributing editor for *CHILDHOOD EDUCATION* and leader in the activities of the National Council of Primary Education, will represent that organization by sending news notes of Primary Council activities for publication in *CHILDHOOD EDUCATION*.

Charlotte B. Norton, our new Executive Secretary, made her first trip to our Baltimore publishers to attend a conference of the Committee on Circulation, of which Robert S. Gill is chairman. Miss Norton remarked on the cooperative attitude of the publishers.

Margaret C. Holmes cheerfully contributed a few days of her vacation to a budget conference held in the headquarters office. Miss Holmes drove to Washington from her summer home in Troy, Pa.

J. Milnor Borey is the new Executive Secretary of the Progressive Education Association. Like his predecessor, Mr. Snyder, he comes from the Scarborough School.

E. C. Lindeman is Consulting Director and **Flora Thurston** Assistant Director in the new headquarters office of the National Council of Parental Education, 41 East 42nd St., New York City.

Book Reviews

A unique book for the prospective and inexperienced teacher. This is a successful attempt¹ to help young people to decide whether they wish to teach and also to tell the young teacher definitely what to do and how to do it.

Part I, might well be used in a vocational guidance course in high schools. By means of the suggestions made, the students may make up their minds whether teaching offers the opportunities and rewards that seem worthwhile to them; and also know if they have the characteristics which will fit them for the profession. Good form in securing a position is definitely discussed. The keeping of a contract after once entered into is an example of the definiteness of the suggestions made to the beginner.

Because many young teachers must enter upon the work of teaching without full or adequate training and with totally insufficient supervision, *The Beginning Teacher* in Part II may very profitably be used by them. Here they will find many of their questions answered on what to do to prevent serious disciplinary problems arising, how to so conduct their school that they may keep the support of pupils and the community, and also how to deal tactfully with parents. In spite of *Blue Laws for Teachers* in Harpers Magazine this winter it is well for teachers plainly to realize early in their professional life that many people, as well as their pupils, are looking to them to set standards of living. The authors tell the young and prospective teachers of their duties of cooperation and loyalty. How to organize a P. T. A. is clearly set forth. A nice balance of outside activities and school duties is advised.

¹ John C. Almack and Albert R. Lang, *The Beginning Teacher*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1928. Pp. xvii + 478.

Part III covers the more usual but necessary ground discussed in methods books. A teacher who found herself without a course of study and with no one to help would find practical help in Part III.

The whole book is very well fitted for use in high school and normal school teacher-training courses. It combines in one volume in concise form much that the teacher will be likely to come back to and reread for help and guidance when she gets into an actual teaching situation. The reviewer wishes the author had seen fit to list more than one teachers' magazine to which the young teacher might go for inspiration and guidance and for a broad view on professional affairs.

ELLA CHAMPION,
Elementary Supervisor,
Niles, Michigan.

Psychology and the preschool movement.
—Teachers of courses dealing with parent training and the preschool period of infancy quite generally voice the complaint of the lack of an adequate and satisfactory text book for this purpose. This book² was written to satisfy this need. In a general way the book contains three types of material: (1) generally accepted psychological principles applied to and illustrated by concrete instances of infant behavior; (2) a summary of the more important findings derived from a study of infants; and (3) some discussion of this data in reference to the problems of child care and training.

The first chapter lists twelve of the general and significant problems encountered in transforming a child of a given native equipment into an acceptable social being.

² Ada Hart Arlitt. *Psychology of Infancy and Early Childhood*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1928. Pp. ix + 228. \$2.00.

The second chapter enumerates those aspects of an individual's make-up that are primarily due to its native equipment. These are grouped into the four classes of mental level, special abilities, health, and personality traits. The congenital equipment that conditions and shapes a child's development is discussed in the four succeeding chapters—the child's sensory, motor and neural equipment, its reflexes, and its instinctive and emotional responses and tendencies. This treatment is orthodox in the main. The discussion of instincts and emotions is considerably colored by the writings of Watson. In general the author is to be classed with those who give considerable emphasis to the influence of inheritance on mental development.

There follow five chapters on Habit Formation, Sensation, and Perception, Memory, Imagination, and the Thinking Process. These chapters are concerned with the exposition, illustration, and application of standard psychological concepts from the standpoint of their relation to the various problems of infant behavior.

Next we have a chapter on the language and drawing development of children, a chapter devoted to the discussion of the social attitudes that are characteristic of children at this period of development, and a final chapter describing the wide range of individual differences—differences in physical growth, health, intelligence status, emotional stability, and strength of instinctive tendencies.

It is a readable text. Psychological concepts and principles are stated and illustrated in terms of a wealth of concrete and interesting material. The book is clearly and simply written, and it is well adapted to the needs of parents, the interested layman, and college students with a limited amount of formal psychological training.

HARVEY CARR,
University of Chicago.

Intelligence tests for primary grades.—

The purpose of this study,² which was accepted as a doctor's dissertation at Johns Hopkins University, was the practical one of finding out which of the group intelligence tests in existence are the most satisfactory instruments for testing primary children. If the various tests differ in value it is obviously important for the teacher and administrator to know which the best ones are.

What is the standard for the determination of a good test? The most fundamental and important requirement is that it should measure what it purports to measure—that is, the child's intelligence—as accurately as possible. Hence the author of this study sought to compare the various tests in respect to the accuracy with which they measure intelligence.

The method which was followed was to compare the scores of children on each of the nine intelligence tests with two measures which are taken as standards of measurement on criteria. The first criterion used was the Stanford Revision of the Binet Scale and the second was the average standing of the children on the various group tests taken together. The use of these criteria, of course, involves the assumption that these criteria themselves give satisfactory measures. The conclusions are sound only insofar as this assumption is correct. It may be accepted as true enough to make it worthwhile to make the comparison.

Besides using two criteria the author employed two methods of comparing the scores on the group tests with the scores on the criterion tests. They were compared, first, by finding the correlation between the scores of each of the tests and of the criteria.

² Mary L. Dougherty. *Comparative Study of Nine Group Tests of Intelligence for the Primary Grades.* Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press, 1928. Pp. vii + 112. \$1.75.

Second, they were compared by finding the average deviations of the scores on the tests and the criteria.

The use of the two criteria, as well as of the two methods, gave somewhat divergent results. Furthermore, the tests were repeated the second year on approximately half the children, and the repetition gave somewhat different results from the first administration. These divergencies are somewhat puzzling, and suggest that the differences in validity of the various tests may not be very great, or at least that they are not easily measured. However, some tests seem to give fairly good evidence of superiority in certain grades. Also, it appears that more reliability is gained by combining some tests than by combining others. By following the guidance of this study one will undoubtedly obtain somewhat more accurate measures of intelligence than by selecting tests without this guide.

The experiment was a very laborious one and was carried out with great care and painstaking attention to detail. The reader is referred to the original report for a full account of the method and the results. The practical conclusions concerning the best tests to use are found in Chapter 6, particularly the last section of this chapter.

FRANK N. FREEMAN,
University of Chicago.

Another contribution from Winnetka.—In recent years there have been devised and published a number of sets of practice exercises and work books in arithmetic to put into the hands of pupils in order to give drill and to control practice in such a way as to bring children into contact with the different kinds of arithmetical operations in a systematic and graded order. The results of standardized tests show that schools which use such exercises improve the arithmetic work of pupils more rapidly than do schools which do not employ work books.

Superintendent Carlton Washburne of Winnetka, Illinois is carrying out his

program of individual instruction in arithmetic by means of work books⁴ which he has prepared to give drill and at the same time to continually test achievement.

In order to judge the worth of any work book it is desirable to set up certain standards based upon experimental evidence in so far as such exists. The following criteria are rather generally recognized today in the field of arithmetic:

1. Provision for practice in various difficult steps peculiar to each process.
2. Drill on each possible number combination distributed according to scientific specifications.
3. Training in problem analysis provided for each difficult step of the various processes.
4. Frequent self-testing to check progress in the fundamental operations and in problem solving. Mixed drills to maintain skills already acquired.
5. Self-directed individual remedial work.
6. A teacher's manual giving adequate teaching devices and plans for using work books that have been proved practical through wide research and experimental use.

The Washburne Individual Arithmetics meet the above criteria as well as any work book now on the market. The books are organized to cover complete topics of processes rather than the work of any particular grade. This feature makes possible the adjustment of the books to any course of study but necessitates the buying of more than one book for each grade. There is no doubt but that such practice materials will aid the teacher in analyzing any process and will provide ample systematic drill materials for the pupils regardless of the classroom method of teaching used.

ELEANOR M. JOHNSON.
*Director of Elementary Education,
York, Pennsylvania*

⁴ Carlton W. Washburne. *Washburne Individual Arithmetic*. (Book One, Book Two, Book Three, Book Four, Book Five. Teacher's Manual, Books One to Five; Key to Test Books, Books One to Five; Correction Book, Books One to Five.) Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Company, 1928. Net \$2.76.

In The Magazines

Editor, ELLA RUTH BOYCE

THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL METHOD in its September-October number, under the title *Our Changing Schools*, gives a report of the work being done in Hawaii to change its school practice, written by Helen Pratt its Assistant Director of Research. She tells us that this new spirit of professionalism and of interest in progressive methods was a feature of education in Hawaii many years ago. Summer schools under the leadership of Colonel Parker were held and there was what she characterizes as an "early renaissance," in 1898. There was developed a great spirit of enthusiasm and interest in new methods . . . this spirit was not fostered . . . it died out from lack of continued inspiration . . . indifference succeeded enthusiasm and desire for self-improvement." Quoting from the school reports, the details are given of the progress or lack of it through the years. The conclusions are interesting. "Progressive school practice can never be reduced to a formula, it can never be carried through by anyone who looks for mechanical guidance; consequently, continued in-service education which supplies background, inspiration, and materials for the new education is essential." And again, "The supervisor is the only agent for in-service education who can be on the job for all the teachers. Things may be so arranged that all the teachers are reached by supervisors. Such supervisors hold the most important key to progress and teacher growth." And finally, "A relapse into routine, indifference, and reaction, is to be feared by every system experiencing this desire for a changed education. It may perhaps be avoided if the theory which must guide and inspire practice is not forgotten; if in-service education which does not lapse into formalism is continued

by every agency, and on a high level; if contacts with liberal ideas and the progressive schools are made possible; if leaders in every system are on their guard against setting up administrative barriers to change, and instead, offer every possible favorable condition for growth."

In this same magazine, Dr. James F. Hosc publishes the first in a projected series of articles on *The Organization of the Elementary School*. The purpose of the series is thus stated by him—"It seems to the present writer that the time is ripe for a new appraisal of the public elementary school as a going concern and an attempt to apply to it a synthesis of the newer ideals and practices that are to be found here and there but seldom if ever combined into a rational whole." He has some comments to make on the platoon school—rather more critical than approving, "the platoon program as such lacks flexibility." He does however feel that it is making some contribution. "It has done much to demonstrate the desirability of at least some specialization on the part of elementary school teachers generally." Of the kindergarten, he says "The kindergarten persists as the most modern and progressive stage of the child's school experience." He believes also that the rapid development of the nursery school will help to increase interest in early education in general. He speaks of it as "an adjunct of university schools of education. It finds itself a laboratory for research in child welfare, and a center of interest or scholarly studies in nutrition, mental measurement, and mental growth." He believes out of the new dignity of work with little children which this brings "a new respect for

the work of elementary schools must follow." Dr. Hosic writes from a wide experience. This article states three preliminary propositions, basic for the study which he is presenting. These are (1) "Elementary schools are not as good as they might be. Without additional expense, an organization might be effected that would greatly increase their efficiency." (2) "The final test of the quality of a school is the effect it has on the pupils who attend it." (3) "Changes in the conduct of a school should be based on principles, not upon rules or formulas."

Clara B. Springstead reports *First Steps Toward a Differentiated Course in Reading For Ability Groups in the Primary Grades*. It is given in detail as she says "a very limited study, in a small school system." She feels it has been profitable in "showing the needs for further study and experimentation looking toward more data and more intelligent and effective teaching."

The name of Miriam Van Waters is always arresting to those who are interested in child welfare, so when one sees that in the October issue of the *SURVEY GRAPHIC* she is writing of *Why Hickman Hangs*, one feels that this must be an important message. She truly believes it is, feeling that "it is reasonable to ask the court, the press, and the men of science to present the whole truth to the end that our abhorrence may be fastened upon the deed, and the causes which produced it, rather than upon the criminal." She finds, as she studies the facts, five lessons—"First, that of rudimentary eugenics; Second, When a parent is released from an institution for the insane, the state should supervise the children; Third, When a student in our public schools shows symptoms of strain and stress, it would be a good thing to refer him to a child guidance clinic, school counsellor, or visiting teacher; Fourth, All cases of juvenile delinquency should be studied thoroughly, no matter how trivial; Fifth, When a child shows marked antago-

nism toward a parent, we see manifest a destructive force that challenges all our science and social work." Unsavory as is this whole case, Miss Van Waters makes us ask, can we ignore its lessons?

Mrs. Lillian M. Gilbreth in a paper called *This Machine Age* presents an aspect of it usually overlooked. Her conclusion will hint at her trend of thought. "Like it or not, we are living in a machine age. Most of us have been born into it and are adjusted to it and probably love it whether we acknowledge it or not. It will be an added joy if we can be proud of it as well as happy in it, and know that our pride is well founded. When I watch my small boys start the motors and 'sail' their boats, I am not ashamed or grieved that they have not made them all by hand, but proud that they have made them in the school machine shop. I like to know that they are learning the feel not only of tools but of machinery, for it means that ultimately they will feel at home and adequate, not only in every industrial plant all over the world which it may be their good fortune to visit, but in a machine age which expresses its thoughts and emotions and drive for activity in the tools and equipment which they are learning to feel a part of their very selves."

THE PENNSYLVANIA SCHOOL JOURNAL for October has an article by Dr. William S. Gray on *Types of Teaching Reading*. He presents in it six types of teaching of reading that are in current practice. These are graded and given as he says to "form a series of standards by which a teacher may measure the efficiency of her instruction in reading."

This magazine also carries an article—the second in a series of ten—by Miss Helen Purcell, director of elementary and kindergarten education in the state on *Elementary and Kindergarten Education*. This article has as its special topic "Foundations for Good Teaching."

Who's Who in Childhood Education

Ada Hart Arlitt, special editor of this issue, is to be congratulated on assembling such splendid contributions on Behavior Problems. Dr. Arlitt serves the International Kindergarten Union not only as a member of the Editorial Committee but also as chairman of the Committee on Parental Education. A review of her book *Psychology of Infancy and Early Childhood* appears in this issue. She is Professor and Head of the Department of Child Care and Training, University of Cincinnati.

William H. Kilpatrick has, since 1918, been Professor of the Philosophy of Education at Teachers College, Columbia University. Dr. Kilpatrick is a contributing editor of

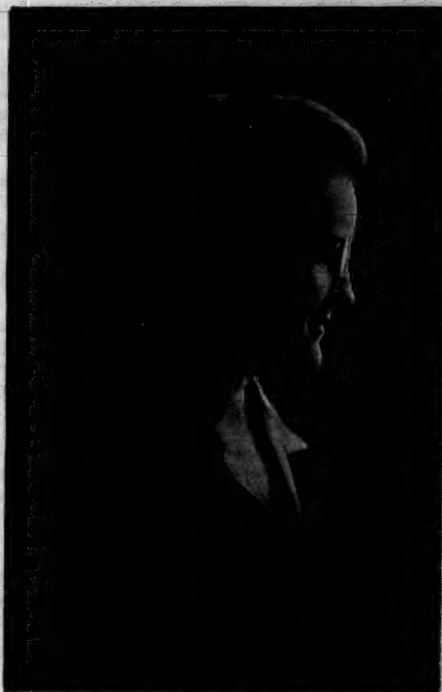
CHILDHOOD EDUCATION, and he is so generous a contributor that he devoted part of his vacation to the preparation of this article.

Olga Adams is director of the kindergarten in the School of Education, University of Chicago, and instructor in the kindergarten-primary department of the College of Education, University of Chicago. Her

article *First Days in the Kindergarten* in the September CHILDHOOD EDUCATION has received much favorable comment.

Arnold Gesell established in 1911 the Yale Psycho-Clinic and has continued to direct it. Dr. Gesell is a member of the Committee on Parental Education, International Kindergarten Union. His newest book is *Infancy and Human Growth*. This is a companion to the earlier volume *The Mental Growth of the Pre-School Child*.

W. E. Blatz is Associate Professor of Psychology in the University of Toronto, Director of the St. George's Nursery School, Consulting Psychiatrist to the Juvenile Court of Toronto. His book *Parents and the Pre-School Child* is forthcoming.



ADA HART ARLITT

Agnes Day's first article, as you will recall, appeared in the October number. The next in her Art Series will appear in January.

Julia Letheld Hahn, Kindergarten-Primary Supervisor, San Francisco, California, is Chairman of the National Council of Primary Education.

The Space For Free Speech

On the October Number: In Miss Frazee's article, I was particularly impressed with the method of safeguarding against premature classification of the younger children by securing the judgment of different teachers and noting the effect of different environments. The emphasis upon the need for a varied and rich curriculum for the dull as well as the bright child is an excellent point. I would like to know, however, why with this broad program in Baltimore the kindergarten record card lists re-telling stories, saying rhymes, and singing songs as major achievements? Does not the selection of these activities overemphasize learning ability, and is there not danger of encouraging the kindergarten teacher to resort to drill? Manual activities lend themselves to creative effort and are a more natural form of expression for the child of four and five than language and singing. Should not the primary teacher be encouraged to appreciate the child's ability to do original thinking and to work with others? For this reason, I believe manual activities should have an important place on a kindergarten record card.—*Julia Wade Abbot, Director of Kindergarten Education, Philadelphia.*

Anticipating November's Behavior Number: In spite of the fine suggestions throughout the October issue we cannot help but see the lack of another side of Individual Differences, the so-called "problem child" is really of this type. Perhaps it could not be touched upon in the one magazine issue. . . . Miss Dobbs gives us her characteristic challenge in her willingness to analyze the real meaning which a child puts into his picture. It is because of our unwillingness to really wait for the child that we only partially accept the criticism by Miss Morris of the case reported by Mrs. Gesell in September. The fascination of blue prints is admirably suggested by Miss Day, but some of us are a little dubious as to the artistic quality of spatter work. We also see danger in over emphasis on unrelated nature material in primary art work.—*Frances Jenkins, University of Cincinnati.*

In Criticism of a Criticism: I had the opportunity to observe the two boys, John and Julius, whose case story was reported in the September issue and also had the opportunity of going over the early developments of this case.

I feel that the methods adopted by Miss Bennett in the handling of these two boys were unusually thoughtful and intelligent, and under the circumstances feel that she could not have made any greater haste in bringing about a different reaction in these two boys to the kindergarten situation. Probably, greater progress could have been made if it had been possible to put a social case worker in the home, so that the problem would have been attacked at both ends.

In the home these two boys had undoubtedly been subjected to very rigorous and fear-inspiring discipline, a type conceived by an aggressive Polish mother who was having great difficulty in adapting herself to the different attitudes toward children which we have in this country. It is going to require some very careful work in that family group to bring about a better understanding of these children, and it is our plan this year to attempt that type of work. I feel that under the circumstances if Miss Bennett had rushed matters in the classroom, that she probably would have driven these two youngsters further into their shell, and made it much more difficult for them to have made a final adjustment to school conditions.—*Frederick H. Allen, M.D., Director Philadelphia Child Guidance Clinic.*

Excuse Our Error of Omission: Because of lack of space in the September number we were unable to publish in full the concluding statements of *Julius and John Enter School*. Since Miss Abbot feels that "The conclusion of the article as printed seems to suggest that diagnosis and adequate treatment are not necessary if the teacher is skilful," we are publishing in full her conclusions, which include a quotation from Dr. Lawson G. Lowrey's *The Child Guidance Clinic and the Community*:

" . . . I should plead here for a complete obliteration of the notion that just because a diagnosis has been made, the situation has been in some way helped. To be sure, adequate planning and adequate treatment cannot proceed until there is an adequate diagnosis, but the diagnosis is not an end in itself; it is only a means to the end of proper treatment."

"With the help of the Child Guidance Clinic next year it is hoped that the home also may be induced to develop better ways of dealing with these two children."